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THE
WAR IN ITALY,
AND
ALL ABOUT IT.

BY J. H. STOCQUELER,

AUTHOR OF 'THE LIFE OF THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON,' 'INDIA,'
'TRAVELS IN PERSIA, RUSSIA,' ETC.

With a Map of the Seat of War.

LONDON:
HENRY LEA, 22, WARWICK LANE.
1859.

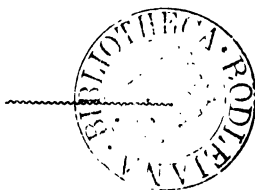


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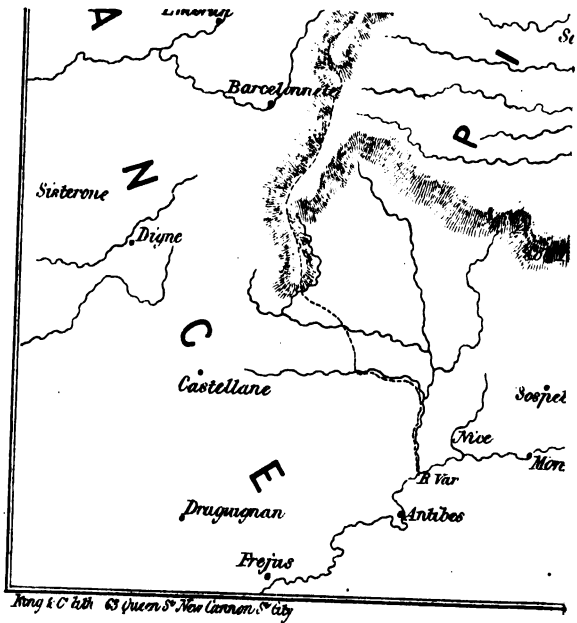
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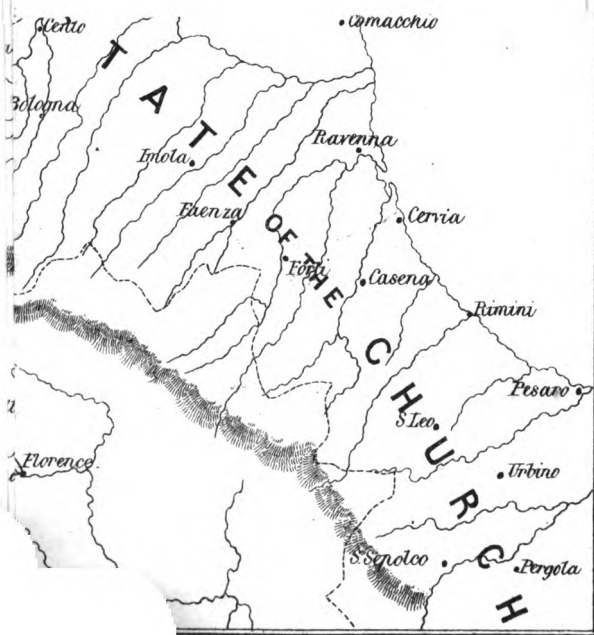
INTRODUCTION.

THE following sketch appears to be called for at the present juncture.

Rightly to understand the military operations which may follow upon the mutual declaration of war between Austria on the one hand and France and Sardinia upon the other, it is necessary that the reader should have before him a sketch of the topographical features of the country which is likely to become the theatre of strife, and a brief history of Piedmont in its relations to the two greater Powers. I have endeavoured to be concise, for the ordinary claims upon public attention do not allow of the devotion of too much time to one subject.

J. H. S.





THE WAR, AND ALL ABOUT IT.

TOPOGRAPHICAL SKETCH.

Piedmont and Northern Italy are separated from the rest of the great European Continent by ranges of mountains called the Alps. This magnificent frontier is in the form of a semi-circle, and is divided into three great masses, which are again subdivided into secondary masses. The first great division or Western Alps—called severally the Pennine, Graian, and Cottian Alps—describes a tortuous curve of about 72 leagues in extent, beginning at the Col (or Gorge) de Tenda in the south, and running in a north-easterly direction to Mont Blanc. The several passages through this chain are by the Col de Tenda, lat. $44^{\circ} 5'$, Mont Genevra, Mont Cenis, and the Little St. Bernard. The second division, or Central Alps, extends from Mont Blanc to a lofty peak called the Drey Herren Spitz (the peak of the three Lords), and comprehends the Great St. Bernard, the Simplon, Mont St. Gothard, &c. The third division forms another segment of a circle, running east and south from the Drey Herren Spitz to Fiume, a small port in the Gulf of Quarnero, at the north-eastern corner of the Adriatic, between 45° and 46° N. lat., and 14° and 15° E. long. The Apennines, which divide Italy in all its length, constitute a detached chain of the Alps, beginning on the western frontier, and running down to the south-east.

From these several chains descend innumerable streams, forming, in their course, lakes and rivers of considerable extent, and ultimately losing themselves in the Gulf of Venice, the Adriatic and the Mediterranean seas.

The lakes are four in number, and appear to form great reservoirs of the waters of the mountains. They are severally called the Lago Maggiore, Como, Iseo, and Garda. Lake Maggiore, which is of irregular form, and about 40 miles in length, receives the waters of the Maggia in the north, and distributes them at her southern extremity. Lake Como, which is to the east of Maggiore, is divided into two parts. The most considerable bathes the town of Como, and runs to the south-west; the lesser division, called also Lake Lecco, runs off towards the south-east. Lake Como is about 30 miles in length. Lake Garda, the broadest of the lakes in Italy, 37 miles in length, and lying between the 45° and 46° of lat., receives the Sarca (or Tonal) and the river Toscoloro. It is studded with islets and has several little harbours. Between Lake Garda and Lake Como is Lake Iseo, a small basin of water, about 13 miles in length, north and south.

Numerous rivers find their sources in the Alps and the Apennines. The chief of these is the Po, which, descending from Mont Viso, traverses the magnificent plains of Lombardy, from east to west, and then runs the tortuous, serpentine course, which earned for it, from our poet Goldsmith, the appellation of the "Winding Po." The course is 323 miles in length. The river is navigable throughout, and is the grand commercial channel of the north of Italy. It waters a fertile and beautiful country, and its banks are embroidered by numerous towns, chateaux, villas, and villages. The chief towns are, TURIN, the capital of Piedmont; Placentia, called by the Italians *Piacenza*, and the French *Plaisance*; Cremona, Guastala, Ferrara. Nineteen smaller affluents are upon the left bank of the Po; among which are the two Dorias, the Sesia, the Tesino, the Adda, the Oglio, and the Mincio. The principal affluents on the right bank are, the Tanaro, the Trebbia, the Secchio, the Scrivia, the Panaro, and the Reno.

From its direction and the great volume of its waters, the Po is of the highest military importance; besides that it presents an obstacle to invasion from either side. It forms the defence of the Piedmontese against an attack from the Lombardian side, and equally protects Lombardy from the hostile operations of Piedmont. It is nowhere fordable. Lavallée, describing its strategic value, says, "On the west

the Po is important from its affluents; on the east it is covered by the rivers which fall directly into the Adriatic; on the north it stretches right across the country between the Alps, which prevent any great invasions from that quarter; on the south, if an enemy make good his entrance through the openings of the Alps and Apennines, the river still preserves all its importance, because an army cannot venture to advance into the Peninsula, without having its rear protected by the Po." The fiercest conflicts in the Italian wars have taken place on the banks of this river. The armies of France, Spain, Russia, and Austria have, during the last 200 years, been frequently carried to the banks of the Po, and the issues of their battles have decided the fate of states and empires. It was on the Po, also, that Scipio awaited Hannibal's first attack 2000 years ago.

The TICINO, or TRESINO, is the river next in importance to the Po. Deriving its origin from Mont St. Gothard, it first waters Val Levantina, traverses the entire length of Lake Maggiore, which it quits at Sesto Calende, and then running southerly for 30 miles bathes Turbigo; and passing Vigevano it falls into the Po near Pavia. This river forms the boundary of Piedmont on the one side, and Austrian Lombardy on the other. It offers but an imperfect barrier to Austrian invasion, because the passage of the river at Pavia, near the confluence of the Po and Ticino, enables the Austrians to turn the position of a Piedmontese army, and to separate it from its entrenched camp at Alessandria. It was on the banks of the Ticino (the Ticinus of the Romans), that the first great cavalry action was fought between the Roman and Carthaginian forces. The Numidians, supported by the Gaulish heavy cavalry, completely defeated the Roman horse. Scipio himself was dangerously wounded. Here was first established the superiority of the cavalry of Hannibal over that of the Romans, and to this arm of his force Hannibal owed much of his subsequent success—"the country being level and open, and peculiarly favourable to the action of that arm, in which they were so evidently inferior, the Romans retired behind the Ticino, over the bridge which they had made, and which they soon broke down before them." See Colonel M'Dougall's "Campaigns of Hannibal."

The ADDA rises in the Rhetian Alps at Mont Ortler, and runs N.E. and S.W., watering the Valteline, and, receiving an accession of volume from the Maira, it falls into Lake Como. The valley forms part of the Lombardo Venetian kingdom. In its southerly course the Adda washes Trezzo; Cassano on the road from Milan to Brescia; Agradel; Lodi, celebrated for a battle in 1796, when Napoleon forced the passage of the river; Pizzighittone and Fombio, near which place its course terminates. The Adda is a very rapid and deep river, but fordable here and there. The left bank is skirted by hills; the right is bare and open. General Ulloa, in his *Guerre de l'Indépendance Italienne*, says that there are several *têtes de pont** along this line. There are such defences at Lecco, Brivio, Cassano and Lodi. The *tête de pont* at Lecco is of great importance: it commands the road from Bergamo to Lecco, the only one that is practicable for artillery. In like manner the *tête de pont* at Lodi commands the two roads from Brescia to Lodi, and Pavia to Lodi. At Pizzighittone and Cremona there are likewise good defences of the Adda, but these will be spoken of hereafter.

The TANARO, the third in importance among the rivers of Northern Italy, unites with the Po near Cambia, to the east of Valenza. It has its source in Monte Tenda at the southernmost extent of the Maritime Alps, and, in its course to the N.E., it laves Ormea, Ceva, Asti, Cherasco and Alba, and joins the Bormida at Alessandria.

The SESIA is a larger river than the Tanaro, but it is of less importance, strategically considered, because it opens no roads to the Alps. Descending from Monte Rosa, its course lies through a wild and winding valley, watering Romagnano, a spot hallowed by the death of the gallant Bayard, to whom Bonnivet, at the eleventh hour, committed the command of the French army, on its retreat (in 1524) before the forces of the Emperor Charles. The Sesia then flows through a level country much intersected by canals, passes Vercelli—the *Vercellæ* of the Romans, where Marius, by a splendid victory, effected the deliverance of Italy from the barbarian Cimbri—and loses itself in the Po, a little below Casale.

* Head of a bridge,—fortification to prevent the passage of a river by an enemy.

The **MINCIO** flows out of Lake Garda, at the fortified position of Peschiera. After washing Mozambaro on the right bank, it passes by Borghetto-Pozzolo and Evito, and soon afterwards forms two or three small lakes, one above and another below the fortified city of Mantua, and, leaving these, joins the Po at Governolo. The banks of the Mincio are of unequal height; sometimes they rise on the right, sometimes on the left bank. At certain bends of the river a good defence may be made. The hills of Monzabano and Volta overawe the left bank; those of Salionza and Valeggio command the right bank. Of the eight points where the river must be crossed to attack Verona the chief are Monzabano and Molini. The divided course of the river at this point admits of a cross-fire from batteries which sweep over an unbroken space.

The **OGLIO**, rising in Mont Tonal, runs towards Lake Iseo, flows past Chiari on the road from Brescia to Milan—takes a course parallel to the Po and terminates between Guastalla and Borgo Forte. It is a broad river and intersects the expanse between the Adda and the Mincio, but it constitutes only a feeble line of defence against an attacking army.

The **ADIGE** finds its source in the gorge of Rescha in the Tyrol on the frontiers of Germany. Flowing south it bathes Trento, the capital of the Italian Tyrol; then Calliano, “a formidable position in a frightful pass;” Roveredo, where Napoleon gained a victory over the Austrians in 1796; Verona; Legnago, a fortified town; Carpi, and so on to the Adriatic at about 3 miles from Chioggia. It is navigable from Trento to the sea, although the navigation is occasionally interrupted by natural obstacles. The main course of the river is protected by the strong fortress of Verona; and its inferior course can be rendered impracticable as far as the sea, by an inundation effected by opening the dykes and uniting the waters of the Molisella and the Po with those of the Adige. Colonel Jackson writes—“The Adige is the best line of protection of the Po and of Italy: it is broad, deep, rapid, never fordable, easily defended, provided one is master of Lake Garda and the Rocca d’Anfo.”

The Trebia, or Trebbia, runs from the gorge of Monte Bruno, a little north-east of Genoa, up to Placentia. It is

only a mile wide, and fordable throughout. After Hannibal had passed the Po the Romans fell back and disputed the Trebbia with him, but were again defeated by the Carthaginians, who forced them, under Sempronius and P. Cornelius Scipio, to cross the river in the middle of winter. On the banks of the Trebbia, also, the Imperialists defeated the French and Spaniards in 1746; and in 1799 the French General Macdonald discomfited the Russians and forced them to retreat upon Genoa.

There are numerous smaller rivers in Northern Italy, but as they are for the most part merely affluents of the foregoing, and do not form in themselves serious obstacles in campaigns, they need not be further alluded to.

The chief towns of Piedmont and Northern Italy next claim attention.

TURIN, the capital of Piedmont or Sardinia, anciently called Augusta, the chief town of the Taurinians of Liguria who opposed themselves to Hannibal, stands in a vast plain at the confluence of the rivers Doria and Po. It has a population of 120,000 souls, and ranks with the most magnificent cities in Europe. It contains a superb palace, a picture-gallery, numerous squares, spacious streets, 115 churches, beautiful gardens and walks, a university, an arsenal and a military school.* A canal running from the Doria and sluices, which flow through the streets into the Po, keep the town clean and healthy. Formerly Turin was well fortified, but nothing now remains of the old works (which were destroyed by the French after the battle of Marengo) except the citadel. No city has been more frequently besieged, taken and retaken, than Turin. It was taken by D'Harcourt in 1640; and again besieged by the French in 1706 under Feuillade, who, although furnished with an incredible quantity of *materiel*, omitted to invest the town, and was consequently attacked by Prince Eugène (after the battle of Ramilies) and compelled to raise the siege. In 1798 it was in the possession of the French republicans; in 1799 the combined Russian and Austrian army wrested it from them. In 1800, after the battle of Marengo, the town again surrendered to the French, who held it until the peace in 1814.

* See farther on an account of the Accademia Militare.

ALESSANDRIA, or Alexandria, a place of great strategical importance, holds nearly 40,000 inhabitants. The town is situated on the right bank of the Tanaro, with two fortifications, one on the left bank. In the centre of all the roads of the upper basin of the Po, the position of Alessandria in a war in Piedmont cannot be overrated. The fortifications constructed by Bonaparte were razed in 1815, in accordance with the conditions of the treaty of Vienna—reconstructed a few years afterwards; again dismantled in 1835, and have since been rendered almost impregnable by the Sardinians. The town is pleasantly situated on a wide and fertile plain, 70 miles E. by S. of Turin, and 60 N. by W. of Genoa. The field and village of Marengo are within sight of Alessandria.

PLACENZA or Placentia, the capital of a sovereign duchy, stands on the right bank of the Po. It is an extremely handsome, well-fortified town, with about 30,000 inhabitants, who chiefly subsist by the manufacture of silk piece-goods. The possession of this town is of great importance to the Austrians, because it serves as a pivot of manœuvre on the two banks of the river, and derives its support from its connection with Pizzighittone, which defends the passage of the Adda. In like manner it is protected by Cremona. These three towns constitute, in fact, the three salients of a broad triangle, and operate as reciprocal defences.

MILAN (*Ital.* Milano), the ancient Mediolanum, the capital of Lombardy, stands in the midst of a wide luxuriant plain between two little streams, the Olona and the Savessa. Possessed of a beautiful cathedral or duomo in the Gothic style of architecture, Milan is a point of great attraction. It possesses a population of 162,000 souls—is surrounded by fortifications (the *enceinte* forming a circumference of eight miles); and contains many noble streets, squares, and gardens; a splendid amphitheatre, the largest opera-house in the world; a college, and immense libraries, and works of art. Before Milan fell to the Austrians in the sixteenth century, it had successively been captured by the Romans, the Gauls, the Huns, the Lombards, the French, and Frederick Barbarossa. It remained, in fact, in the hands of Austria until the war of the French Revolution, when in the course of eighteen years it was shuttlecocked between the French and Austrians, and

finally remained with the latter as the capital of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. For a moment the Austrians were expelled from it during the revolution of 1848, but they soon recovered their position, and re-established their authority. No town in Italy is in so flourishing a condition, at this moment, as Milan.

MANTUA, situated on an island in the river Mincio, or rather in a lake, twenty miles in circumference, contiguous to the river, is the capital of the province of the same name in Austrian Italy. Nature and art have combined to render Mantua a place of great strength. Surrounded by marshes, crossed by artificial dams which connect it with several fortified suburbs and outworks, reached only by causeways protected by forts, Mantua is almost impregnable. The French only took it after an eight months' siege, in 1797, and did not relinquish it without a struggle. Napoleon I. was quite alive to the importance of Mantua in the conquest of Italy. "I consider," said he, "this place is everything to us: the rest of Italy is an affair of war; this place is an affair of politics." The town is well built; containing a cathedral, a university, a gallery of paintings, full of works by the best masters, churches, convents, spacious streets, &c. Near to Mantua is Ardes—hallowed ground, for here was born the author of the *Eneid*.

VICENZA, on the little river Bacchiliogna, is a fortified town, containing about 30,000 inhabitants, thirty-two miles west of Venice. Like other Italian towns, it boasts of churches filled with fine paintings, and numerous deserted palaces.

VERONA, a place rendered famous by the stories of Boccaccio and the poetry of Shakespere, is of great military importance. It has long been the head-quarters of the military commander of the Venetian provinces, and is one of the most remarkable positions in Europe, now that a permanent intrenched camp has been there established. "This camp consists of Maximilian towers, sufficiently near each other for mutual defence, and the intervals between which enable the army within the camp to act on the offensive when the opportunity shall be favourable; flanked on the one hand by the Adige, and on the other by the last heights of the Euganean mountains. It is almost impossible to force this camp. . . . In consequence of this camp, Verona is now the key of Upper

ITALY."

GENOA, situated at the bottom of the Gulf of Genoa, is a large maritime city, covering upwards of two miles of ground, in the form of a semi-circle, and rising like an amphitheatre upon the terraces which ascend to the first summits of the Apennines. It is irregularly but strongly fortified. Commanding the Mediterranean and the entrance into Italy, Genoa, the maritime arsenal of the Sardinian monarchy, is a town of great consequence, although decayed and fallen from the high estate it occupied before the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope was discovered. There are about 80,000 inhabitants in Genoa, and accommodation for a very large garrison.

These constitute the principal towns in those portions of Piedmont and Italy which are apparently destined to play a part in the pending war. Other places, which scarcely rise to the dignity of towns, may perhaps engage attention; for battles are often great accidents, and take place in localities scarcely contemplated when the plan of the campaign was chalked out. Generally speaking, however, the same scenes are re-enacted on the same spots, because, to use the words of the Archduke Charles, in his campaign of 1799, "the merit of operations depends on the configuration of the country; for the situation of the mountains and the course of the rivers invariably determine the line and the points upon which armies inevitably encounter each other." The same idea is repeated in Colonel J. R. Jackson's admirable preface to M. Lavallée's "Military Topography." He says:—

"In Europe war has been so frequent, that it is difficult to find a spot which has not been crimsoned by the blood of its victims; but the sites of great battles are comparatively few, because the circumstances necessary for the concentration and disposition of large masses depend upon the great features of a country which are necessarily limited in their number by reason of their extent. The requirements of strong columns in motion compel them to follow particular routes, and the importance of certain positions renders their acquisition decisive of the contest; hence, in the great wars of European nations, the same routes have been often traversed and the same strategic points have been repeatedly the theatre of desperate struggles."

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

For present purposes it will probably be sufficient to retrace the history of Piedmont and Northern Italy from the year 1796, down to which period the king of Sardinia had been in quiet possession of Piedmont for thirty or forty years, while "the Milanese and Mantuan provinces were governed by Austrian delegates, who acted with prudence and humanity, and testified a regard for justice and a spirit of philanthropy and beneficence."* Venice and Genoa were independent republics. Their power had declined, it is true, but they still retained a vestige of independence, although Genoa had been obliged to assign Corsica to France in 1772, in compensation for the protection afforded by the latter against the violence of the pirates of the Mediterranean.

In the year 1793 the French had crowned their Revolution by the atrocious murder of their sovereign. Proud of the results of their violence, and anxious to take the lead among European nations in the dissemination of the blessings of civilisation, according to their own interpretation thereof, they determined to send out invitations to the subjects of other states to imitate the example of the republic—"cast away the rubbish of their old institutions, dethrone their kings, demolish their nobility, divide the lands of the Church and the aristocracy among the lower classes, and arise a free and regenerated people."† Accordingly, in November of 1793, the Convention passed a decree in these words:—"The National Convention declares, in the name of the French nation, that it will grant fraternity and assistance to all people who wish to recover their liberty; and it charges the executive power to send the necessary orders to the generals to give succour to such people, and to defend those citizens who have suffered, or may suffer, in the cause of liberty." And, by way of encouragement to the people of other countries to accept this gene-

* Russell's Europe.

† Sir Walter Scott.

rous offer, emissaries were sent all over the world, supplied with money to bribe the disaffected of every state to raise the standard of revolt and proclaim a Republic. Genoa, Piedmont, and Lombardy swarmed with the propagandists of French freedom. From the base of the Alps to the banks of the Tiber there was not a town which did not soon contain its secret clubs and impatient democrats, all ready to welcome and to aid the French for the sake of "liberty, equality, and fraternity!"

To prevent the dissemination of doctrines so dangerous to their stability, the monarchies took up arms. Austria and Sardinia united their forces and stood upon the defensive, for it soon became evident that the Republican Government meant to send armies into every state which manifested a desire to throw off its allegiance to a reigning sovereign. For some time, the wars in La Vendée and on the Rhine kept the hands of the French Directory quite full; and although troops were sent under Brunet to invade Savoy and Piedmont, they were not at first successful. As a further protection to their frontiers the combined forces assembled in the neighbourhood of the Maritime or higher Alps, for an army had now been formed with the title of "the Army of Italy," whose mission was to advance to the Peninsula through Piedmont. The declared doctrine of the propagandists was:—"We respect no neutrality. Every state that is not for us is against us. If a country be strong enough to defend herself, well; if not, she must allow passage to our troops and furnish us with whatever we may require."

For a short time the Austro-Sardinian army made a respectable stand against the threatened invasion, till General Dumorbion, who commanded the Republican "army of Italy," having acted upon the advice offered him by Brigadier-General Bonaparte, then twenty-six years of age, and at the head of the artillery of the army, drove back the allies, and obtained possession of the Col de Tenda, Saorgio, and the gorges of the higher Alps. But he went no further.

The French Directory had cherished the expectation of being able to revolutionize the peninsula of Italy by exciting a spirit of insurrection at Rome, and sending troops to aid the insurgents. This plan was, however, rendered impracticable by the presence of a British fleet in the Mediterranean, pre-

pared to attack any armament that might approach Civita Vecchia. There was consequently no way of forcing a passage into Italy except across the Alps; and, as Napoleon Bonaparte had the merit of suggesting the plan of operations, the Directory readily confided it to him under the auspices of one Salicette, a deputy, who was to accompany him as commissioner of the government.

The story of Napoleon's energetic appeals to the courage, the constancy, and the cupidity of the French army, the manner in which he turned the Alps,* fought the battle of Monte Notte, and separated the Sardinians from the Austrians, is "familiar as household words" to the ordinary English reader. The effect of the invasion was to compel the king of Sardinia to make a separate peace, and cede to the Republic the territories of Savoy, Nice, Tenda, and Benil, and to put the French in possession of Coni, Exilles, Susa, Alessandria, and other towns and fortresses, until a general peace should be concluded. These possessions gave the enemy a new base of operations. He followed up his first great success by driving the Austrians across the Po into the Milanese territory, defeating them at Tonabia Lodi, entering Milan in triumph, besieging Mantua, and, in combination with the operations of other French generals, his subordinates, in Parma, Modena, and Tuscany, forcing them into a peace at Campo Formio in October 1797.

By the terms of the treaty, the Austrians lost Mantua, but obtained Venice, which Bonaparte, in violation of all good faith, wrested from the Republic; Bergamo and other provinces near the Milanese, Corfu and the neighbouring islands, and the Albanian establishments below the gulf of Lodriro, were also given up to the French.

Victorious as had been the arms of the young General of the "Army of Italy," they were tarnished by the sanguinary cruelties practised upon the inhabitants of Pavia and smaller towns, the restless plunder of villages, and the shameful spoliation of Milan and other depositories of beautiful works of art. These atrocities have, however, been the ordinary characteristics of French invasions, whenever the country

* "Hannibal forced the Alps, but we have turned them."—*Mémoires de Napoléon*.

visited by them has been worth the pillage. They invariably act upon the principle of making "war support war," and they carry out that impolitic and inhuman principle to its utmost possible limits.

Piedmont was not long permitted to enjoy the blessings of peace. War again broke out (1798) between the French and Austrians; and Paul, then Emperor of Russia, in alliance with Austria, sent General Suwarrow to encounter the French in Northern Italy. To meet this new enemy the French Directory sent a fresh army into the threatened provinces, and, to render its path the smoother, Charles Emanuel IV., who had ascended the throne of Sardinia on the death of his father, was compelled to enter into a treaty of alliance with the French and to admit a garrison into Turin. The upshot of this ready compliance was his ultimate relinquishment of the sovereignty of Piedmont. From that period until the final close of the war with France in 1815 (always excepting the brief intervals of 1802 and 1814), Piedmont and Northern Italy were the scenes of continual conflicts. Napoleon Bonaparte, again entering Piedmont by the Alps, added to his high renown by his military exploits at Marengo, and his subsequent achievements and political triumphs in Germany. The subjection of the continent of Europe to his sway, direct or indirect, was complete, until England, Spain, and Portugal on the one side; Russia, Prussia, and Austria upon the other, by their united efforts destroyed the colossal power he had raised, and sent him an exile to St. Helena.

In 1815 a Congress assembled at Vienna to adjust the affairs of Europe, and to restore matters as nearly as possible to the position they occupied before the French Republicans commenced their aggressive warfare. At the Congress a treaty was entered into; the following articles of which possess a present interest, because they determined the exact position of Austria in reference to Northern Italy.

Extracts from the Treaty of Vienna of 1815.

ARTICLE XCIII.—In pursuance of the renunciations agreed upon by the Treaty of Paris of the 30th May, 1814, the Powers who sign the present Treaty recognise His Majesty the Emperor of Austria, his heirs and successors, as legitimate Sovereign of the provinces and

territories which had been ceded, either wholly or in part, by the Treaties of Campo Formio of 1797, of Luneville of 1801, of Presburg of 1805, by the Additional Convention of Fontainebleau of 1807, and by the Treaty of Vienna of 1809; the possession of which provinces and territories His Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty obtained in consequence of the last war, *such as Istria, Austrian as well as heretofore Venetian, Dalmatia, the ancient Venetian Isles of the Adriatic, the mouths of the Cattaro, the city of Venice, with its waters, as well as all the other provinces and districts of the formerly-Venetian States of the terra firma upon the left bank of the Adige, the Duchies of Milan and Mantua, the Principalities of Brixen and Trente, the county of Tyrol, the Voralberg, the Austrian Frioul, the ancient Venetian Frioul, the territory of Montefalcone, the government and town of Trieste, Carniola, Upper Carinthia, Croatia on the right of the Save, Fiume, and the Hungarian Littorale, and the district of Castua.*

ARTICLE XCIV.—His Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty shall unite to his monarchy, to be possessed by him and his successors, in full property and sovereignty :—

1. Besides the portions of the *terra firma* in the Venetian States mentioned in the preceding Article, the other parts of those States, as well as all other territory situated between the Tessin, the Po, and the Adriatic Sea.

2. The valleys of the Valteline, of Bormio, and of Chiavenna.

3. The territories which formerly composed the Republic of Ragusa.

ARTICLE XCV.—In consequence of the stipulations agreed upon in the preceding Articles, the frontiers of the States of His Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty, in Italy, shall be :—

1. On the side of the States of His Majesty the King of Sardinia, such as they were on the 1st of January, 1792.

2. On the side of the States of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, the course of the Po, the line of demarcation following the *thalweg* of the river.

3. On the side of the States of Modena, such as they were on the 1st of January, 1792.

4. On the side of the Papal States, the course of the Po as far as the mouth of the Goro.

5. On the side of Switzerland, the ancient frontier of Lombardy, and that which separates the valleys of the Valteline, of Bormio, and Chiavenna from the cantons of the Grisons, and the Ticino.

In those places where the *thalweg* of the Po forms the frontier, it is agreed that the changes which the course of the river may undergo

shall not, in future, in any way affect the property of the islands therein contained.

ARTICLE XCVI.—The general principles adopted by the Congress at Vienna, for the navigation of rivers, shall be applicable to that of the Po.

Commissioners shall be named, by the States bordering on rivers, within three months, at latest, after the termination of the Congress, to regulate all that concerns the execution of the present Article.

ARTICLE XCVIII.—His Royal Highness the Archduke Francis d'Este, his heirs and successors, shall possess, in full sovereignty, the Duchies of Modena, Reggio, and Mirandola, such as they existed at the signature of the Treaty of Campo Formio.

The Archduchess Maria Beatrice d'Este, her heirs and successors, shall possess, in full sovereignty and property, the Duchy of Massa, and the Principality of Carrara, as well as the Imperial fiefs in La Lunigiana.

The latter may be applied to the purpose of exchanges, or other arrangements made by common consent, and according to mutual convenience, with His Imperial Highness the Grand Duke of Tuscany.

The rights of succession and reversion, established in the branches of the Archducal Houses of Austria, relative to the Duchies of Modena, Reggio, and Mirandola, and the Principalities of Massa and Carrara, are preserved.

ARTICLE XCIX.—Her Majesty the Empress Maria Louisa shall possess, in full property and sovereignty, the Duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, with the exception of the districts lying within the States of His Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty on the left bank of the Po.

The reversion of these countries shall be regulated, by common consent, with the Courts of Austria, Russia, France, Spain, England, and Prussia; due regard being had to the rights of reversion of the House of Austria, and of His Majesty the King of Sardinia, to the said countries.

ARTICLE C.—His Imperial Highness the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria is re-established, himself, his heirs and successors, in all the rights of sovereignty and property, in the Grand Duchy of Tuscany and its dependencies, which he possessed previous to the Treaty of Luneville.

The stipulations of Article II. of the Treaty of Vienna, of the 3rd of October, 1735, between the Emperor Charles VI. and the King of France, to which the other Powers acceded, are fully renewed in

favour of His Imperial Highness and his descendants, as well as the guarantees resulting from those stipulations.

There shall be likewise united to the said Grand Duchy, to be possessed in full property and sovereignty by the Grand Duke Ferdinand, his heirs and descendants :—

1. The State of the Presidii.

2. That part of the Island of Elba, and its appurtenances, which were under the suzeraineté of His Majesty the King of the Two Sicilies before the year 1801.

3. The suzeraineté and sovereignty of the Principality of Piombino and its dependencies.

Prince Ludovisi Buoncompagni shall retain, for himself and his legitimate successors, all the property which his family possessed in the Principality of Piombino, and in the Island of Elba and its dependencies, previously to the occupation of those countries by the French troops in 1799, together with the mines, foundries, and salt mines.

The Prince Ludovisi shall likewise preserve his right of fishery, and enjoy an entire exemption from duties, as well for the exportation of the produce of his mines, foundries, salt mines, and domains, as for the importation of wood and other articles necessary for working the mines : he shall be also indemnified by His Imperial Highness the Grand Duke of Tuscany for all the revenues the family of the latter derived from the Crown duties before the year 1801. In case any difficulties should arise in the valuation of this indemnity, the parties concerned shall refer the decision to the Courts of Vienna and Sardinia.

4. The late Imperial fiefs of Vernio, Montanto, and Monte Santa Maria, lying within the Tuscan States.

ARTICLE CI.—The Principality of Lucca shall be possessed in full sovereignty by Her Majesty the Infant Maria Louisa, and her descendants in the direct male line.

The Principality is erected into a Duchy, and shall have a form of government founded upon the principles of that which it received in 1805.

An annuity of 500,000 francs shall be added to the revenue of the Principality of Lucca, which His Majesty the Emperor of Austria and His Imperial Highness the Grand Duke of Tuscany engage to pay regularly, as long as circumstances do not admit of procuring another establishment for Her Majesty the Infant Maria Louisa, her son, and his descendants. This annuity shall be specially mortgaged upon the Lordships in Bohemia, known by the name of Bavaro-Palatine ; which, in case of the Duchy of Lucca reverting to the Grand Duke of Tuscany, shall be freed from this charge, and shall

again form a part of the private domain of His Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty.

ARTICLE CII.—The Duchy of Lucca shall revert to the Grand Duke of Tuscany, either in case of its becoming vacant by the death of Her Majesty the Infant Maria Louisa, or of her son Don Carlos, and of their direct male descendants; or in case the Infant Maria Louisa, or her direct heirs, should obtain any other establishment, or succeed to another branch of their dynasty.

The Grand Duke of Tuscany, however, engages, should the said reversion fall to him, to cede to the Duke of Modena, as soon as he shall have entered into possession of the Principality of Lucca, the following territories :—

1. The Tuscan districts of Fivizzano, Pietra Santa, and Barga.
2. The Lucca districts of Castiglione and Galliciano, lying within the States of Modena, as well as those of Minucciano and Monte Ignose, contiguous to the country of Massa.

ARTICLE CIII.—The Marches, with Camerino, and their dependencies, as well as the Duchy of Benevento and the Principality of Ponte Corvo, are restored to the Holy See.

The Holy See shall resume possession of the Legations of Ravenna, Bologna, and Ferrara, with the exception of that part of Ferrara which is situated on the left bank of the Po.

His Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty, and his successors, shall have the right of placing garrisons at Ferrara and Commachio.

The inhabitants of the countries who return under the government of the Holy See, in consequence of the stipulations of Congress, shall enjoy the benefit of Article XVI. of the Treaty of Paris of the 30th May, 1814.

All acquisitions made by individuals, in virtue of a title acknowledged as legal by the existing laws, are to be considered as good, and the arrangements necessary for the guarantee of the public debt and the payment of pensions, shall be settled by a particular Convention between the Courts of Rome and Vienna.

His Catholic Majesty the King of Spain deferred his accession to the foregoing treaty until the Powers could unanimously decide on the application of Article XCIX., and consequently on the reversion of the Duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla after the decease of the Archduchess Maria Louisa. This they did by their representative at Paris in June 1817. A treaty was entered into, and it was agreed that—

ARTICLE III.—The Duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla shall, after the decease of Her Majesty the Archduchess Maria Louisa, devolve, in full sovereignty, to Her Majesty the Infanta of Spain, Maria Louisa, to the Infant Don Charles Louis, her son, and to his descendants in the direct male line, with the exception of the districts situated within the dominions of His Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty on the left bank of the Po, the full property of which shall remain to Her said Majesty, conformably to the restriction laid down in Article XCIX. of the Act of Congress.

ARTICLE IV.—At the same period, the reversion of the Principality of Lucca, referred to in Article CII. of the Act of the Congress of Vienna, shall be carried into effect on the conditions, and according to the provisions, of the same Article, in favour of His Imperial and Royal Highness the Grand Duke of Tuscany.

ARTICLE V.—Although the frontier of the Austrian States in Italy be fixed by the course of the River Po, it is, nevertheless, unanimously agreed that, as the fortress of Placentia is an object of essential interest to the defensive system of Italy, His Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty shall (until the reversions consequent on the extinction of the Spanish line of the Bourbons shall take place) continue to enjoy in that city the pure and simple right of garrison, while all the Crown and civil rights over the same city shall be reserved to the future Sovereign of Parma. The expense of maintaining the garrison in the city of Placentia shall be at the charge of Austria; and its force, in time of peace, shall be amicably settled among the High Parties concerned, who shall make it the rule of their conduct to consult, as much as possible, the comfort of the inhabitants.

Some years subsequently to these arrangements, an amicable understanding was entered into, that Alessandria should belong to the Sardinians, conditionally that the fortifications were dismantled. This took place so late as 1835; but subsequently Sardinia restored the works, and even made the place infinitely stronger and more formidable than it had been before.

In 1844 some modifications became necessary in the terms of the treaty of 1815, as far as regarded the Duchies of Lucca, Modena, and Tuscany, because of the intricacy of the frontier-line of the respective states, and its susceptibility of changes. To these alterations the Emperor of Austria and the King of Sardinia became willing parties, and, at the instance of "His

Imperial Royal and Apostolic Majesty," an express negotiation was opened at Florence, which resulted in a treaty. Transfers and exchanges of territory were the consequence of this treaty, but none of them are of any moment to the question now at issue, if we except the exchange of the reversion of Placentia. By the new treaty that place falls to Austria on certain death-vacancies occurring, and a portion of the Parmesan territory goes to Sardinia.

The establishment of Austria in her sovereignty over the Lombardo-Venetian States, and the protection she was justified in according to the Duchies of Lucca, Modena, and Tuscany, did not contribute to the happiness and contentment of the better classes in Italy. They felt that the domination of a foreign power was incompatible with the advancement of the Peninsula in intelligence and moral and political greatness. They groaned under the weight of a military despotism, which cast them back to the slavery and dependence of the seventeenth century. While all the rest of Europe was enjoying the blessings of free institutions, Northern Italy—once the mistress of the earth and the "ruler of the waters"—was helpless, degraded, and friendless. The fine spirit and lofty sense of self-respect, which in the olden time characterised the princes and nobles, was vanishing, and their debasement extended to the humblest classes; so true is it that the character of nations entirely depends upon the form of the government they maintain, and under which they subsist. Sismondi, in his preface to his invaluable work, has so admirably treated this subject that we cannot do better than offer a translation of it here, in support of that sympathy which the inhabitants of a free country are bound to extend to Italy at this juncture.

"One of the most important conclusions," writes the profound political economist, "that can be drawn from the study of history is, that the government is the most efficacious cause of the virtues and vices of nations; that their energy or their lassitude, their talents, their intelligence or their ignorance, are scarcely ever the effects of climate, or the attendants of a particular race, but the work of the laws; that everything was given to all alike by Nature, and that governments either preserve to or alienate from the men who are placed under

them, those qualities which form in the first instance the inheritance of the human species."

He goes on,—

"No history places this truth in a more striking light than that of Italy. Look for a moment at the various races of men who have succeeded each other on that territory of great sovereigns:—compare the qualities which characterised them;—the moderation, the gentleness, the simplicity of the first Etruscans; the austere ambition, the masculine courage of the contemporaries of Cincinnatus; the servility, the ostentation of the Varians; the cowardice of the subjects of Tiberius; the ignorance of the Romans of Honorius; the boasting of the Italians who submitted to the Lombards; the virtue of the twelfth century, the lustre of the fifteenth, and the debasement of the Italians of our day. The same soil has nourished all these very different children of nature, and the same blood circulates in all their veins. The slight mixture of certain barbaric races with the aborigines has not sufficed to change the physical constitution of men whose infancy has been passed in the same region. Nature has remained the same for the Italians in all ages; the governments alone have changed; revolutions have always preceded or accompanied the alteration of the national character. Never has the connection of cause with effect been more signally manifested."

We are not called upon here to discuss the quality of the tyranny of Austrian despotism. Opinions will differ as to its mildness and its suitableness to the naturally restless character of the population of the Italian States. Let it suffice that, so distasteful to the Italians is the rule of the House of Hapsburg, that the upper classes—excepting among the sycophant place-holders—can scarcely bring themselves to be commonly civil to their masters. Lady Morgan, in her 'Italy,' published forty years ago, describes a state of things which has undergone little or no variation down to the present hour. An Austrian Archduke will pass through the streets of Milan or Mantua, and no Italian will doff the hat to him.* The

* "To those who wish to recover their independence, any master must be an object of detestation."—*Historical Notes to Byron's 'Childe Harold.'* (Vide the description of Venice.)

desire for liberty, of which an Austrian Archduke is the living antagonism, for ever haunts the heart of the educated Italian. It was this conviction that led the generals of opposite nations to bespeak for their troops a welcome during the War of the French Revolution. Berthier told the Romans that "the free children of Gaul had come to their august precincts, with the peaceful olive-branch in hand, to re-establish the altars of liberty raised by the first Brutus." And Lord W. Bentinck, when he visited Leghorn with a division in 1814, proclaimed:—

"Italians! the troops of Great Britain have landed on your shores: she offers you her hand to liberate you from the iron yoke of Bonaparte. Let us make Italy what it formerly was in the good old times." †

But Italy has had little reason to be grateful to any of the foreign Powers that have at any time interfered in her behalf, and for many years past she has hoped to work out her emancipation with her own hands. This earnest hope, this fervent desire, has dictated the inflammatory appeal of ardent demagogues, suggested secret conspiracies, and originated sanguinary revolutions; and it appears clear that she cannot really expect independence, excepting through the disinterested aid of powers capable of coping with Austria.

To pursue our history. In 1848 the French people, disgusted with the rule of Louis Philippe,—which, while it tended to enlarge the foreign possessions of the kingdom, augment its alliances, and decorate the interior, introduced a system of official corruption into every branch of the state,—rose in revolt. The King fled, and an impromptu Republic displaced the monarchy.

Revolutions in France are ever the signal for revolutions elsewhere. There are always agitators at hand, prompt to encourage movements which promise personal aggrandisement as well as national liberation. The deposits of the sea often rise to the surface when the waters are much disturbed. As it was in 1794, so was it in 1830, and again in 1848. Germany,

* The original runs thus:—"Italiani! Le milizie de Grande Bretagna sono sbarcato nei vostri liti. Ella via da la mano per travvi del ferreo giogo del Bonaparte! facciamo si che l'Italia cio divenga che ella gia fu, nei suoi tempi migliori."

Hungary and Italy were convulsed ; Denmark, Prussia, Austria and Sardinia, all witnessed a brief but bloody struggle. Austria was perhaps more violently affected by the great commotion than any other country ; for “ in none are there so many elements of change struggling for a vent, and in none had so few enlightened measures been taken to avert the catastrophe. Implicated in the intricate conflict of interests in her several states, and already uneasy at the position of her Italian provinces, Austria received the intelligence of the French revolt with alarm, and the shock vibrated through every nerve of her system. The impetus given to popular opinion burst through her restrictive cordon, and in a moment she was pursued by the demands of her several states like a debtor by his creditors.* ”

At this juncture (February, 1848), the King of Sardinia, anticipating events, wisely gave his people a new constitution. The decree ran thus :—

“ Now, therefore, that the times are ripe for greater things, and in the midst of the changes which have occurred in Italy, we hesitate no longer to give our people the most solemn proof that we are able to give of the faith which we venture to repose in their devotion and discretion.

“ Prepared in tranquillity, the political institutions, which will form the completion of the reforms which we have already effected, are being matured in our council, and will consolidate the benefit in a manner conformable with the state of the country.”

Then followed the Articles of the Constitution, which proclaimed the Catholic religion that of the state, with toleration to the other forms of public worship existing ; the inviolability of the person of the Sovereign ; the responsibility of ministers ; the deposit in the King's hands of the executive power, the command of the naval and military forces, the sanction and promulgation of the laws, the administration, by deputy, of justice, and the power of granting mercy and commuting punishment ; the exercise of the legislative power, in conjunction with two Chambers—the members of one to be nominated by the King, and the other to be elective. It was further decreed that no tax should be levied without the consent of the Chambers, that

* Thompson's 'Austria.' 1849.

the press should be free, the liberty of individuals guaranteed, and the judges be irremovable; finally, the King reserved to himself the power of levying and disbanding the militia.

A constitution so liberal in its general terms could not be otherwise than acceptable to the Sardinians. It gave additional security to the throne of Charles Albert, the then reigning sovereign, and led the rest of Italy to desire a similar charter of liberty.

In the month of March, 1848, the insurrection broke out in Austria. It originated in Milan. The citizens suddenly demanded the suppression of the old police, and the establishment of a new corps under the orders of the municipality; the abolition of the laws regarding state offences, and the liberation of all political prisoners; a provincial reform of the kingdom; the liberty of the press; the convocation of the district councils for the purpose of electing a National Assembly; and the institution of a Civic Guard. To enforce this demand, a vast crowd assembled before the Government House at Milan—the troops fired upon them; the people flew to arms, and, being aided by the armed peasantry without and encouraged by emissaries within, attacked all the public offices and great establishments. Proclamations were issued and distributed over the neighbourhood by means of balloons; barricades arose in the streets of Milan, and the tricolour was hoisted on the gates of the palace of the government. Marshal Radetzky, who was in command at Milan, resisted bravely; but was compelled in less than a week to abandon the city, and take up a position on another line.

A provisional government having been formed by the insurgent Milanese, they now issued an energetic proclamation, calling upon all Italians to join in the contest which had been commenced. One passage ran:—

“To arms then, to arms! to secure the fruits of our glorious revolution—to fight the last battle of independence and the Italian union.”

The King of Sardinia was one of the first to take part in the struggle, and to carry his troops into the Milanese territory. In his proclamation, however, which announced his adhesion, he incautiously said, “our troops shall enter the territory of Lombardy and Venice, bearing the arms of Savoy

above the Italian tri-coloured flag:" an assumption which gave offence to the Milanese, and operated to prevent that cordial co-operation which was necessary to give the insurgents the slightest chance of success against the arms of Austria.* Venice followed the example of Sardinia.

By the beginning of April, the Sardinian army, 60,000 strong, divided into two corps d'armée, forced the Austrian lines on the Mincio, and, crossing the Adige at Pontone, took up a position at the north of Verona. This movement would have cut off Marshal Radetzky from the valley of the Trent, had the Papal troops, which had crossed the Po in a state of mutiny to take part in the struggle, been led by a general who was less true to his trust than to the cause of liberty. As it was, General Durando, whose instructions were to merely protect the Roman territory, retired before the Austrian columns, thus giving the latter an opportunity of joining their comrades at Verona, and giving battle to the Austrians. The battle was fought on the 6th of May, before the walls of Verona. It lasted eight hours, when the Sardinians retired, for the people within the city made no demonstration of a desire to assist their operations against the Austrians.

This indecisive battle was followed by the siege of the city and fortress of Peschiera, which fell to the army of Charles Albert at the end of ten days.

Radetzky now concentrated his troops at Mantua, and attacked the Tuscans and Neapolitans, who had joined the Sardinians, and had lines of their own from Goito to Gazzololo, on the Mincio. This was on the 29th of May: the old marshal was nearly succeeding in defeating his enemies, when the Sardinians came up from Vallegio and turned the scale. The Austrians were driven along the right bank of the Mincio to the gates of Mantua. Rivoli was next assaulted by the King of Sardinia; and Charles Albert was proceeding to occupy Verona, which Radetzky had temporarily quitted to reduce Vicenza, where the Papal troops were quartered, when the old Austrian suddenly returned, and got into the town before the Piedmontese.

Mantua was next invested by the Sardinians; but the Sardinian position was too much scattered, and, before the King

* Annual Register, 1848.

could concentrate his forces, the Austrians resolutely attacked his lines at different points. Severe battles were fought at the close of July, at Somma Campagne, Valti, and other places on the Mincio; and the issue was the retreat of the Sardinians, excepting the garrison of Peschiera. Charles Albert entered Milan at the head of his troops, but found so little co-operation on the part of the people, and was left so completely in the lurch by the Tuscan and Roman troops, that he signed an armistice, and at once retreated to his own dominions. By the terms of the armistice, the Sardinians were obliged to evacuate Modena, Parma, Placentia, Venice, the Venetian *terra firma*, and the fortresses of Peschiera, Rocco d'Ango, and Osappo. On the 10th of August, the King of Sardinia, having arrived at Turin, published a Proclamation to the "People of the Kingdom;" in which he ascribed his reverses to the increase of the enemy, the unaided position of his army, the absence of provisions, long fatigues, and the want of money and ammunition. He wound up the Proclamation with these words:—

"The throbs of my heart were ever for Italian independence; but Italy has not yet shown to the world that she can conquer alone. People of the kingdom! show yourselves strong in a first misfortune. Employ the free institutions that have arisen among you. Repose confidence in your King. The cause of Italian independence is not yet lost."

The armistice was continued until the end of the year, during which time the good offices of England and France were conjointly employed to negotiate a peace between the Emperor of Austria and his revolted subjects.

The speech made by the King of Sardinia, at the opening of the Parliament on the 1st of February 1849, sufficiently showed that his heart was still set upon a confederation of the Italian princes and nations, but that he did not desire an immediate renewal of the contest with Austria. It was too palpable that, although he had confidence in the power of the land and sea forces of Sardinia to protect the frontier of Piedmont, he did not believe in their capacity to initiate hostilities with any chance of a favourable result. Nevertheless, his Majesty endeavoured to give some account to the people of

the flattering state of affairs. He told them that he had recently visited his army and his fleet—that they were inflamed by patriotic ardour; and that,—if the confidence which he entertained that the mediation “offered by two generous and friendly powers” would arrive at a prompt solution, should be deceived,—he would not be prevented from recommencing the war with the firm hope of success. “But,” added the King, “in order to conquer, the natives must co-operate with the army.” Some provinces had not shown the requisite enthusiasm in the national cause, and to these he drew particular attention. He declared that they occupied as important a place in his heart as in his kingdom, and recommended themselves by their virtues as well as by the *special merit of constancy and martyrdom*. “Console yourselves,” ran the Royal speech, “for the sacrifices which you may be called on to make, in order to accomplish their success, and they will bear perpetual fruit. Prudence and energy combined must save us.”

The prudential considerations pointed at by the Sovereign had unfortunately but little weight with the Piedmontese, or at least with the strongest party in the state. A sufficient plea for the renewal of hostilities was soon established. A representation was made to the foreign powers that Austria had violated the armistice; that an iniquitous system of spoliation was organised under the name of extraordinary war-contributions. “A few unfortunate emigrants, guilty of having preferred exile to oppression, were visited with the most cruel confiscations. The Austrian fleet, notwithstanding the terms of the armistice, and the formal promises made to the Ministers of the mediating Powers at Turin, began to seize the Italian vessels navigating the Adriatic, and thus perpetrated an act of hostility and violence, contrary to the principle of the liberty of the seas.” This intimation was preparatory to a renewal of the war. But another circumstance occurred to precipitate a cessation of the armistice. The Grand Duke of Tuscany had fled from his dominions in consequence of a revolution, and the people had established a republic. The Sardinian Prime Minister, Count Gioberti, prepared to send a Piedmontese army into Tuscany to put down the republic and establish a federal union of Italian sovereigns—a measure which, it was

understood, would have been acceptable to Austria, and have tended to assist the cause of real freedom and social improvement. But Gioberti's plan failed: the majority of the Chamber were favourable to an Italian republic, "one and indivisible." The minister resigned, and the helm was grasped by the revolutionary party. On the 12th of March, Marshal Radetzky was informed that the armistice was at an end; and this renewal of hostilities was, after this fashion, justified to the Assembly:—

"Our forbearance has proved unavailing. The attitude of Austria has shown that no honourable peace can be hoped for unless won by arms. By waiting longer, we should have wasted our strength without any result. Our finances would be exhausted, and our army, now so efficient and patriotic, would have felt its spirit broken had it been compelled to remain much longer inactive."

Marshal Radetzky announced his intentions by a spirited proclamation to the Austrian troops. He told them that their wishes were fulfilled—that the enemy were about to make a second attempt to seize the crown of Italy; but he was convinced that six months of inaction had not destroyed the loyalty, bravery, and devotedness of the Austrian troops. He reminded them of the victories they had gained in the previous war, and promised to dictate the terms of peace in the Sardinian capital. "To arms, soldiers! Follow once more your old general to war and victory. I will witness your exploits. It will be the last joyful act of my long military career, if, in the capital of a perfidious enemy, I can decorate the breasts of my brave comrades with the emblem of valour, conquered with blood and glory. Long live the Emperor and country!"

The armies took the field. Charles Albert passed the Ticino at Buffalora, and, singularly enough, Radetzky crossed twelve miles lower down the stream, between Vigivano and Pavia. General Ransorino, at the head of a large body of Sardinians, occupied a position on the south of the angle formed by the Po and the Ticino, opposite Pavia; and it was his business to have prevented the passage of the Austrians. By remaining inactive, he enabled the latter to separate the two divisions of the Piedmontese army. Charles Albert, who

had got to within fifteen miles of Milan, was consequently obliged to fall back and concentrate his force at Novara. Radetzky continued to advance, in order to intercept the road to Turin. The Duke of Savoy (the present King of Sardinia) confronted him at Vercelli. Radetzky attacked and defeated him, and moved to Mortara to place himself between Novara and Vercelli. Near Novara, in a position close to Oleggio, the Piedmontese, under Charles Albert, and the Austrian Marshal, came into collision. The Piedmontese were 50,000 strong. The Austrians were less numerous; but, by the skilful manœuvring of the divisions, Marshal Radetzky's columns were enabled to encompass and vanquish them. The Sardinians, after manfully fighting, retreated in great disorder, and were compelled to seek shelter, in a northern direction, in the mountains.

The disastrous battle of Novara, fought on the 24th March, 1849, compelled the King to abdicate his throne in favour of the Duke of Savoy. He instantly quitted his dominions and sought refuge in France, there to die of a broken heart.*

* The kings of Sardinia appear to have been very unfortunate during the half century preceding the accession of the present sovereign. The following sketch of the career of the predecessors of the *present* king, Victor Emmanuel, is interesting:—

“While all apparently went ‘merry as the marriage-bell,’ the French Revolution broke out. Napoleon’s conquest of Italy ruined the King, compelled him to renounce the title of Duke of Savoy, and left him in possession of little except the unconquerable island of Sardinia. The Fort of La Madelena has the honour of beating off an artillery attack commanded by the young General Bonaparte.

“On the 16th October, 1796, the King died, ruined and bankrupt, of an apoplectic fit, five months after the disastrous treaty of Paris, by which he surrendered all his dominions on terra firma and the title of Duke of Savoy. He was succeeded by his son, Carlo Emmanuel IV., who had been educated by a Jesuit, and was as much a Jesuit as a weak man could be. He was obliged to take refuge in the island of Sardinia, where he arrived, protected by an English frigate commanded by Lord Nelson, March, 1799, and was received with enthusiasm. Sardinia had been a sort of Ireland of Piedmont, treated in the manner that Ireland was when Burke was rejected by Bristol, and until after Sydney Smith wrote ‘Peter Plymley’s Letters.’ The late King had made many concessions to the Sardinians. The Jesuit King began by repudiating the solemn treaties he had signed with the French, and recalling all the concessions made to his Sarde subjects by his father. He increased the taxes, and supported the feudal Barons in all their tyrannical exactions. He abolished the Council of State, and closed the Stamenti or Local Parliament. When he had tried the brave islanders to the utmost, he left, under the idea of re-

The terms of the new armistice obliged the Piedmontese to pay the expenses of the war, to suffer the Austrians to garrison Alessandria in conjunction with themselves, and to recognise the Sesia as the future line of demarcation between the Austrians and Piedmontese.

Victor Emanuel had scarcely ascended the throne, when he was called upon to suppress a formidable revolt at Genoa, which was accomplished by General Della Marmora and 34,000 men; and to dissolve the chambers, which had become refractory. He made peace with Austria, reduced his army,

assuming the throne of Piedmont, after the victory of Suwarrow; but the battle of Marengo closed that dream. After successively living in Florence, Rome, and Naples, constantly disturbed by the advance of French conquests, in March, 1802, he resigned what he called his crown of thorns, in favour of his brother, Vittorio Emmanuel; became a member of the order of Jesuits in 1815, and died in their monastery in 1819.

"Vittorio Emmanuel's reign may be described in one sentence. After the Restoration in 1814, which added Genoa to the kingdom of Sardinia, Von Raumur relates that the King asked 'What was to be done?' 'For sevenpence, Sire,' replied an old Minister, a Marquis de Carabas, 'your Majesty may put everything in the best order immediately. Buy an old State calendar for the year 1790; and replace all, as you find there.' The King took and literally acted on this wise counsel. Personally he was a respectable man. He had entered into a solemn engagement with the house of Austria 'never to give the Piedmontese any liberal institutions.' And when—following the Spanish Revolution—the Italian Revolution broke out, he abdicated in favour of his brother, Carlo Felice.

"Then for a few days appeared, as Regent and supporter of the Liberal Constitution at Turin, Carlo Alberto, Prince de Carignan, cadet of the house of Savoy, a branch but almost forgotten in nearly three hundred years of unbroken descent in the male line of the elder branch.

"The Austrians soon put down the detected revolution in Italy. Carlo Felice, on learning his brother's abdication, issued a proclamation dictated by the Duke of Modena, in which he announced that, so far from consenting to any change whatsoever, he saw rebellion and revolution in every encroachment upon the plenitude of his Royal authority. His first acts were, the condemnation to death or the galleys of the foremost revolutionists—the abolition of liberty of the press—closing the Universities of Turin and Genoa—restoring the Jesuits and placing education entirely in their hands. In other respects he was a mild Monarch.

"He died in April, 1831, and the branch became, happily for Italy, extinct. The heralds, travelling back to the sixteenth century, found Carlo Alberto, Prince de Carignan, the lawful successor to the throne of Sardinia. His life, his abdication, are parts of the history of our own days. He and his son have made their kingdom prosperous, powerful, and happy, by rejecting Austrian counsels and Jesuit advisers, and supporting, under no common difficulties, liberty—political, social, religious, and commercial!"

and addressed an energetic remonstrance to his people. The country was in a perilous state: it was incapable of further conflicts; it needed reform, that its liberties should not be compromised.

The appeal of the King was not ineffectual. Internal tranquillity followed; and, to so efficient a state had the Sardinian army been again brought in 1854, that a contingent was sent to the Crimea to co-operate with the French and British forces in the reduction of Sevastopol. We know with what happy result. The success of the Sardinians, almost single-handed, on the banks of the Tchernaya enormously raised their military reputation, and General Della Marmora was pronounced one of the most skilful commanders of the age.

At the Congress of Paris, in 1856, Sardinia was admitted by her plenipotentiaries. She had won her place; and it was of the more importance that her presence should be sanctioned, because it was intended to bring under discussion the internal state of Italy. Nothing, however, was practically accomplished. Some communications may have been made to the Austrian government, and Austria, true to her policy, yielded nothing.

The King of Sardinia, flushed at the success of his arms in the Crimea, visited France and England, and was warmly received. One of our poets, Mr. E. L. Hervey, thus apostrophized him:—

“ TO VICTOR EMMANUEL, KING OF SARDINIA.

“ Foremost and greatest in the ranks of kings,

Thy march hath trod a host of fictions down:

Honour upbears thee on her proud-spread wings,

And on thy brow sits wisdom, as a crown.

O where is Chivalry, if not in thee?

Thou art as one who, in an earlier day,
Through lone, dark midnights, upon reverent knee,

Did watch his arms beside some altar grey,
Thence to ride forth and champion the world!

First in the noble struggle of the free,
No lagging banner hath thy hand unfurled:

Here, planted fast, and rooted as a tree
In the strong heart of nations, let it stand,
Victorious ensign of a glorious land!”

Since then, Italy has been the scene of much discontent; and, out of Italy, her cause has found advocates more or less rash and even criminal. The fervour of patriotism has carried some of her children beyond the bounds of rationality, and they have expiated their wild schemes and deplorable errors on the scaffold.

But all this time it was evident that the Emperor of the French meditated, sooner or later, an interference in the affairs of the Italian peninsula in conjunction with the King of Sardinia; and, calculating on the possibility of such interference leading to a complication of European politics that might eventuate a general war, his Imperial Majesty pursued, with unwonted activity, the measures he had planned for improving the French navy, augmenting and disciplining the army, and enlarging the fortifications of the great sea-ports. As, however, Italy had been quiet, and furnished no apparent reason for hostile operations, Europe simply looked on with curiosity not unmixed with alarm. The close of 1858 left no doubt of the prospects that had been hatching. A pamphlet suddenly appeared, under the title of "*L'Empereur Napoleon III. et l'Italie*," which, although written, it was said, by M. Guerroniere, sufficiently indicated the views of the Emperor. In fact, it was broadly affirmed that the pamphlet owed its origin to imperial inspiration.

Accepting this pamphlet as the real foundation of the present warlike movement, we must briefly rehearse its contents.

"*L'Empereur Napoleon III. et l'Italie*," starts with the declaration that the "Italian question" is one which it is impossible to stifle or put to rest, and that it is better to examine that question impartially and sympathetically than to irritate it by contempt or obscure it by silence. The two main elements in the question are said to be the Revolutionary and National. The former is described as an impotent and destructive element, isolated in Europe, isolated even in Italy, where it has marshalled against itself all the conservative and religious interests. "Condemned by public opinion, vanquished by force, its attempts would be mere adventures; it would fall back; it would succumb; it would ensanguine the Italian soil, and only render the condition of that noble country the more miserable." The National element, on the

other hand, is characterised as one which enjoys the sympathy of Europe, because it is founded on those principles of justice which are henceforth to be the political object of all governments, and is supported by the moral force of the Anglo-French alliance. Skilfully endeavouring to make England a party to the anti-Austrian movement, the pamphleteer recalls the fact that the British Government, our statesmen, Parliament, and public journals, encouraged Italy in 1848, and pronounced against Austrian domination. It is admitted that England could not take part in a continental quarrel between Piedmont and Austria, because she is a maritime power. Lord Palmerston's despatch to the British Minister at Vienna, dated 29th Oct., 1848, insisting that Austria cannot hold upper Italy, because of the invincible hatred which the people cherish for the Austrian army, is particularly quoted. "Since that despatch was written," says the brochure, "*La direction de la politique Anglaise a changé des mains ; mais l'esprit Anglaise n'est pas changé :*" and then follows an extravagant laudation of the liberty of the English nation, and a declaration that Great Britain cannot do otherwise than sustain, in Italy, the cause of which the Government of the Queen has been the resolute support.

The interest of Germany in the "question" is next discussed ; and, after some laboured efforts to commit Prussia and the Confederation to the support of the cause, on political grounds, the interest of France in the solution of the great European "difficulty" is entered upon. In this "*examen*," a broad distinction is drawn between the motives and the condition of the empire under the first Napoleon and the situation of France, relating to the rest of Europe, at this present moment.

For the first, there is easily found plausible excuse and ample explanation ; the latter is thus complacently described:—

"The empire, re-established after more than thirty years of struggles, has achieved the alliance of some of the oldest monarchies, the friendship of others, the esteem of all. There is, therefore, no fear that our generation will behold the commencement of wars such as those which cost our fathers so much blood, and imparted to them so much glory. *If France, tired of peace, were forced to make war, Europe would no*

doubt be moved, but she need not be uneasy; her independence is not in question. War, which fortunately is not probable, would have no other end, when it should become necessary, than to prevent revolutions by yielding legitimate satisfaction to the wishes of the people, and by affording the protection and guarantee of recognized principles and the authentic rights of their nationality."

This declaration comes into the category of those shadows which are said to precede "coming events." Following upon it is an ingenious exposition of the positive existence of an "Italian question," which, it is naïvely admitted, many good men in France, and in Europe, presume to doubt! All the states are shown to be more or less in a state of subservience. At Rome, the Pope is "under the respectful and devoted arms of France." Piedmont cannot remain in her present position without great peril. She has excited hopes, which must be satisfied, or lose her influence in Italy. At Milan, the Austrian domination, for all useful purposes, is impossible. It exists by sufferance: entirely dependent on the good character of the Archduke Maximilian. At Naples, the Government is isolated. The Grand Duke of Tuscany is hedged about with a cheval-de-frise of Austrian bayonets. The Duchess of Parma is bound hand and foot by treaties. The Duke de Modena is the avowed Lieutenant of Austria.

"Voilà le tableau qui se présente à nos regards de l'autre côté des Alpes — * * * Nous voulons que l'opinion puisse décider avec une complète connaissance des choses, non pas si une pareille situation est juste, mais si elle est possible?"

The way being thus far paved for foreign interference, a hasty review is taken of the stubborn resistance of Austria to all proposals of political reform in Italy; and a very fair estimate is offered of the marvellous military strength of the empire, and its capacity to annihilate any Italian army that can be brought to oppose it. The significant conclusion arrived at is, that *Italian nationality can never be the result of a revolution and that it never can rear its head without foreign help.*

The Imperial origin of this view of the Italian question received confirmation in a very few weeks after its publication.

The mature Prince Napoleon became the husband of the youthful daughter of the King of Sardinia; French troops and ships were ominously moved about in the Mediterranean;

and Austria saw that, to maintain her Lombardo-Venetian dominions, an appeal to arms had become unavoidable. England, alive to the miseries of a war the immediate necessity for which was not very apparent, interposed her good offices. A Congress was proposed for the discussion of the questions that had been raised; but the idea evaporated in a little coquetting, that was obviously intended to enable the several parties to gain time. At length, Austria took the initiative and moved her forces to the Sardinian frontier, accompanying the aggressive act with the following manifesto:—

“ TO MY PEOPLE.

“ I have commanded my faithful and gallant Army to step in and terminate the hostile proceedings emanating for years from Sardinia—proceedings by which the indisputable right of my crown, and the inviolate existence of the empire entrusted to me by God, have been of late most violently attacked.

“ I by this step have satisfied a grave but unavoidable duty of my Imperial office.

“ I feel quiet in my conscience, and, looking up to God Almighty, confidently subject my undertaking to His judgment.

“ I likewise confidently submit my resolution to the impartial verdict of my contemporaries and of succeeding ages. As to my faithful people, I am assured of their co-operation.

“ Ten years ago the same enemy, violating every clause of international law and martial right, and being prompted by no other motive than a desire of conquest, invaded the kingdom of Lombardo-Venetia. After glorious battles he was twice beaten by my Army, and delivered up to the arbitrary will of the victor. Obedient, however, to the dictates of generosity, I tendered a conciliatory hand to him.

“ I have not appropriated to myself as much as an inch of his territory, nor have I laid my hand on any of the rights belonging to the crown of Sardinia in the assembly of European nations. Amongst the conditions of peace I prescribed none preventing a repetition of similar events, believing that I should find a guarantee in the tender of reconciliation I sincerely made, and which was accepted.

“ The blood shed by my Army for the honour and right of Austria I sacrificed to peace.

“ The answer to this forbearance—a forbearance unexampled perhaps in the annals of history—was an immediate renewal of the enmity, and an ever-increasing agitation, supported by all

the resources of disloyalty, against the tranquillity and welfare of my Lombardo-Venetian kingdom.

"Being fully conscious of what I owed to the precious treasure of peace for my people, as well as for Europe, I met the course of these new hostilities by patience only.

"The very measures I, in order to counteract the manifold incitements to rebellion, had to carry out for the security of my Italian countries, and the protection of their confines against revolutionary agencies, were latterly made a reason for an augmentation of hostile preparations on the part of Sardinia. But even then my patience was not exhausted.

"Giving due credit to the well-intentioned mediation undertaken by certain great Powers friendly to Austria, I consented to take part in a Congress of the five great Powers of Europe.

"The four points proposed by the Royal Government of Great Britain as a basis for the discussions of the Congress, and communicated to my Government, were accepted by me. In so doing, I added a few conditions tending greatly to the promotion of a true, sincere, and lasting peace.

"Being, however, conscious that on the part of my Government no step had been taken conducive in the least degree to a disturbance of peace, I at the same time demanded that that power guilty of the whole complication, and which was the moving cause of the endangering of the public tranquillity, should effect a preliminary disarmament.

"Yielding to the urgent requests of the friendly powers, I at length gave my consent to the proposal of a universal disarmament.

"The mediation was broken off owing to the non-acceptance of the conditions put forward by Sardinia.

"After this, one step only remained for the maintenance of peace. I ordered the Royal Government of Sardinia to be immediately requested to put its Army on a peace footing, and disband the free corps.

"Sardinia did not respond to this request. Thus, the time has come when we are necessitated to compel the acknowledgment of our right by an appeal to arms.

"I have commanded my Army to march into Sardinia.

"I am fully aware of the grave import of this step. If there was ever a moment when the cares of the Imperial office pressed heavily upon me it is the present. War is a scourge of humanity. I am deeply moved to see the lives and fortunes of thousands of my faithful subjects threatened by it. I am fully sensible to the fact, that war is a trial of more than usual severity at a time when my empire is progressing on the path of internal development, and consequently requires the continuance of peace.

"But the heart of the monarch ought to be silenced when honour and duty alone are allowed to speak.

"On the frontiers stands an armed foe, allied to the party of universal revolution, and openly avowing the plan of forcibly appropriating to himself Austria's possession in Italy. To assist this enemy, the ruler of France—interfering, under the mask of trivial pretences, in the internal arrangements, formally ratified, of the Italian peninsula—moves his troops onwards. Some of the French detachments have already passed the frontiers of Sardinia.

"Serious times have passed over that crown handed down to me by my ancestors in immaculate purity. But the glorious history of our fatherland bears testimony to the fact that, when the sombre shadows of revolution menacing the highest possessions of humanity with destruction seemed to spread over this quarter of the world, Providence invariably availed itself of the sword of Austria to scatter by its shining blade the gathering spirits of darkness.

"We again are upon the eve of a time when the destruction of every established Power is to become the watchword, not only of parties, but of monarchs.

"The sword I am compelled to take up is hallowed by the sacred end for which it is unsheathed. I have drawn the sword in defence of the honour and right of Austria, in defence of the rights of all peoples and states, and for the most sacred possessions of humanity.

"I now turn to you, my people—to you who, by preserving unshaken fidelity to your hereditary dynasty, have become an example to the nations of the globe. I call upon you, my people, to stand by me with your old fidelity, devotion, and readiness for every sacrifice, in the strife now broken out. I, their Supreme Commander and 'Lord of War,' send my military salute to your sons called into the ranks of my Army. Proudly you may point to them, from whose hands the eagle of Austria will rise to new honours.

"Our contest is a just one. We enter upon it full of courage and confidence.

"We hope not to stand alone in this conflict.

"The soil on which we battle has been enriched by the blood of our brothers, the German nation. It has been conquered and, up to this day, maintained as one of the defences of Germany. On that soil the rancorous enemies of Germany were generally wont to commence the manœuvres, whenever the breaking of its internal force was their ultimate end. The foreboding of such a danger is now pervading the German countries, making itself perceptible from the palace to the cottage, and from one frontier to the other.

"I speak in my capacity as a Prince of the German Confederation, point to the common danger, and call back to memory those

glorious days of universal enthusiasm that restored to Europe its liberty by the fiery power of national excitement.

“With God for the Fatherland !

“Given at my palace and first Imperial Metropolis of Vienna, the twenty-eighth day of April, in the year 1859.

“FRANCIS JOSEPH.”

There is something vague in the announcement of the *causes* of the march into Sardinia. It is not said in what the “hostile proceedings” of the Sardinians have been manifested “for years.” The *casus belli* ought to have been more distinctly set forth, if Austria really wished for the sympathy and approbation of the rest of Europe. The allusion to France is less equivocal. Napoleon III. has not had the truth so plainly spoken to him since he was placed on the throne by the unsolicited and unbought acclamations of the consistent French people. He does not hesitate about the manner in which the defiance of Austria should be answered. He is only too anxious to see the gauntlet thrown down, that he may afford Italian nationality the foreign help of which it has been declared to be in need.

The following communication was read to the *Corps Legislatif*, within a day or two of the appearance of the Austrian proclamation :—

“Austria, by ordering the entry of her army into the territories of the King of Sardinia, our ally, has declared war against us. She thus violates treaties and justice, and menaces our frontiers. All the great powers have protested against this act of aggression. Piedmont having accepted the conditions which ought to have ensured peace, one asks what can be the reason of this sudden invasion ? It is because Austria has driven matters to such an extremity that her dominion must either extend to the Alps, or Italy must be free to the shores of the Adriatic, for every corner of Italy which remains independent endangers the power of Austria.

“Hitherto moderation has been the rule of my conduct, but now energy becomes my first duty. France must now to arms, and resolutely tell Europe :—‘I wish not for conquest, but I am determined firmly to maintain my national and traditional policy. I observe treaties on condition that they are not violated against me. I respect the territories and rights of neutral powers, but I boldly avow my sympathies with a people whose history is mingled with our own, and who now groan under foreign oppression.’

“France has shown her hatred of anarchy. Her will was to give

me power sufficiently strong to reduce into subjection abettors of disorder and the incorrigible members of old factions, who are incessantly seen concluding compacts with our enemies ; but she has not for that purpose abandoned her civilizing character. Her natural allies have always been those who desire the amelioration of the human race, and when she draws the sword it is not to govern, but to free. The object of this war is to restore Italy to herself, not to impose upon her a change of masters ; and we shall then have upon our frontiers a friendly people, who will owe to us their independence. We do not enter Italy to foment disorder, or to disturb the power of the Holy Father, whom we replaced upon his throne, but to remove from him this foreign pressure, which burdens the whole Peninsula, and to help to establish there order based upon lawful satisfied interests. In fine, then, we enter this classic ground, rendered illustrious by so many victories, to seek the footsteps of our fathers. God grant that we may be worthy of them ! I am about to place myself at the head of the army. I leave in France the Empress and my son. Seconded by the experience and the enlightenment of the Emperor's last surviving brother, she will understand how to show herself worthy of the grandeur of her mission. I confide them to the valour of the army which remains in France to keep watch upon our frontiers and to protect our homes. I confide them to the patriotism of the National Guard. I confide them, in a word, to the entire people, who will encircle them with that affection and devotedness of which I daily receive so many proofs. Courage, then, and union ! Our country is again about to show the world that she has not degenerated. Providence will bless our efforts ; for that cause is holy in the eyes of God which rests on justice, humanity, love of country, and independence."

"Here have we war for war, and blood for blood,
Controlment for controlment."

The proclamation of the King of Sardinia to his troops completes the case of the three Powers.

VICTOR EMMANUEL'S ADDRESS TO HIS TROOPS.

"Soldiers !—Austria, who is increasing her armies on our frontier, and threatens to invade our territory because here liberty reigns with order,—because, not might, but concord and affection between the people and the Sovereign here govern the State,—because the groans of oppressed Italy here find an echo,—Austria dares to ask us, who are only armed in self-defence, to lay down our arms and submit to her clemency.

"That insulting demand received the reply it deserved. I rejected
...tempt. Soldiers, I tell it to you, convinced that you

will take an insult to your King and to your nation as an insult to yourselves. The announcement I make to you is the announcement of war! Soldiers, to arms!

"You will have to face an enemy not new to you. But, if brave and disciplined, you need not fear the comparison; and you may quote with pride the battles of Goito, Pastrenga, Santa Lucia, Somma-Compagna, and even Custoza, where four brigades alone struggled for three days against five *corps d'armée*.

"I will lead you. We have made each other's acquaintance before this, on more than one occasion, in the heat of battle, when, fighting by the side of my magnanimous father, I had opportunity to admire your courage.

"I am sure that on the field of honour and of glory you will maintain, even add to, your reputation for bravery. You will have for companions those intrepid soldiers of France, conquerors in so many noted battles, who were your brethren-in-arms on the Tchernaya, and whom Napoleon III., who is always to be found where there is a just cause to defend or civilization to promote, sends generously to our assistance in numerous battalions.

"March, then, confident in victory, and twine new laurels round your flag, that tricolour under the folds of which the *élite* of the youth of Italy is collected, and which indicates to you that the task before you is the independence of Italy—that just and holy work which will be your battle-cry.

"VICTOR EMMANUEL."

"Turin, April 27."

Although France and Sardinia were notoriously more desirous than Austria of the arbitrement of war, it would seem from the foregoing that they are really only acting on the defensive. The future historian, with nothing but these proclamations to guide him, would accuse Austria of an aggression unprovoked by any tangible act on the part of France and Sardinia, because the Emperor of Austria begins by announcing that he has ordered his army to invade the Piedmontese territory, and he fails in distinctly avowing the reasons for that proceeding.

Closely following upon the publication of the manifesto was the movement of Austria across the Ticino and the Sesia, establishing military positions, levelling obstacles, raising contributions upon Sardinia, and laying the country waste. But, of course, she did not mean to injure the inhabitants: hostilities were only directed to a revolutionary party.

Thus spake General Gyulai, the commander of the Austrian troops:—

“Sardinian People!—Although we pass over into your territory, we have not directed our weapons against you.

“Our weapons are destined to oppose a revolutionary party, who are weak in numbers, but are mighty in their audacity—who violently suppress each word of peace which is raised, and encroach on the rights of other Italian States, as well as on those of Austria.

“If the Imperial eagle is received by you without hatred and without opposition, so shall order, tranquillity, and moderation come with it, and peaceable citizens can reckon with security upon peace, happiness, laws, and property being held inviolable.

“My word is your surety for that discipline which goes hand in hand with the imperial troops.

“As organ of the magnanimous sentiments of my enlightened king and master, I proclaim and repeat to you at the moment I enter your territory, this only—that our war is not a war against peoples and nations, but against aggressors who, under the hypocritical cloak of freedom, would rob every one of that blessing if the God of Armies were not also the God of Justice.

“If once again your opponents and our opponents are subdued—if again order and peace be restored, so will you, who now call us enemies, in a short time call us liberators and friends.

“FRANCIS COUNT GYULAI,

“Field Marshal to His Imperial and Apostolic Majesty, Commandant of the Second Army Corps, and General Military Governor of the Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom.”

This was accompanied by an “Order of the Day,” addressed by the Emperor of Austria to his army. Then followed, in point of date, the

ADDRESS OF THE KING OF SARDINIA TO THE ITALIAN PEOPLE:—

“PEOPLE OF THE KINGDOM! Austria assails us with the powerful army which, with a pretended love of peace, she assembled to our injury in the unhappy provinces subject to her dominion.

“Unable to bear the example of our political organisation, and unwilling to submit to the judgment of a European Congress as to the evils and dangers which she alone entailed upon Italy, Austria now violates the promise given to Great Britain, and makes a point of honour a *casus belli*.

"Austria dares bid us to lessen our troops, to disarm, and give into her power those brave youths who, from all parts of Italy, have come forward to defend the sacred banner of national independence.

"A jealous guardian of our common heritage of honour and glory, I give up the government of the state to my beloved cousin, Prince Eugene, and once more draw my sword.

"Together with my soldiers, the brave troops of the Emperor Napoleon, my generous ally, will fight the battles of freedom and justice.

"**PEOPLE OF ITALY!** Austria assails Piedmont because I have advocated the cause of our common country before the councils of Europe, because I was not insensible to your cry of distress. She thus breaks violently those treaties which she has never respected. Thus the right of the nation is restored to its integrity, and I can with full conscience fulfil the vow I made on the grave of my high-souled father. While I take arms to defend my throne, the freedom of my people, and the honour of the Italian name, I fight for the rights of the whole nation.

"Let us put our trust in God, and in our concord; let us put our trust in the valour of the Italian soldiers—in the alliance of the noble French nation—in the justice of public opinion.

"I have no other ambition than that of being the first soldier of Italian independence. God save Italy!

"VICTOR EMMANUEL.

"Turin, April 29, 1859."

"C. CAVOUR."

The sword being now drawn, action on all sides immediately superseded proclamations and protocols. Tuscany rose in revolt: the Grand Duke fled. The King of the Sardinians placed himself at the head of his army. France sent 120,000 men across the Alps and round by Genoa. The Emperor of the French quitted Paris to take the command of the "Army of Italy," as the contingent of France is called, leaving the Empress to act as Regent, supported by Prince Jerome. Prussia ordered six *corps d'armée* of the Federal Contingent to be placed on the war footing. The Wurtemberg Chambers called out the Landwehr, made a forced levy of horses, and opened a war-credit of seven millions of florins. The King of Saxony convoked the Chambers. Rastadt, in the Grand Duchy of Baden, was put upon a war-footing and provisions laid in for eight months. Russia, between whom and France some written agreement is admitted to exist, has as yet made no sign of an intended departure from a strict

neutrality. England sent out ships to the Mediterranean with sealed orders, and despatched two or three battalions to Malta, Gibraltar, and Corfu, with heavy detachments of artillery, simply as precautionary measures. A rigid neutrality is imposed upon the Government of Great Britain by every consideration of good policy. We have nothing to gain by such a war as Europe is now to witness. Parliament is not sitting while these pages pass through the press, but we know enough of the sentiments of the leaders of the two great parties in the State to be assured that it must be some very extraordinary and unforeseen event that will render an appeal to British arms necessary or serviceable. At the dinner given by the Lord Mayor to Her Majesty's Ministers, Lord Derby said :—

“It is my thorough conviction that the conduct which England ought to adopt is to preserve, as much as possible, an impartial, dignified, and neutral attitude; to seize every opportunity that may present itself of reconciling the rival nations, and, what is still more difficult, to adjust antagonistic principles. The state of war into which Europe is on the point of entering will doubtless inflict on England much anxiety, alarm, and expenditure; but I trust that the Almighty will preserve us from the most terrible of all expenses,—that of the blood and the lives of Englishmen.”

The Liberals—or, rather, Lord Palmerston, their recognised chief—endeavour to place the responsibility of the war upon the shoulders of Lord Derby and his colleagues, by contending that they did not use the requisite exertions to bring about the acceptance of their offer to mediate, and fairly to discuss the merits of the question at issue.

At Tiverton, Lord Palmerston, addressing the electors, gave Ministers credit for good intentions, but denied their possession of the requisite ability. They had begun, he said, by acting as mediators, without having been officially recognised in that capacity by either France or Austria. The proposal of a Congress was submitted to Austria by Russia and by France, but the conditions which Austria attached to her acceptance of the proposal were simply absurd. She expected that all the parties interested in the quarrel would disarm in the first instance. Men—as was well put by the noble lord,

the member for Tiverton—take up arms for the attainment of a certain object. They assemble, to ascertain if the objects they mutually have in view may not be attained through the medium of pacific negotiations; and in the meanwhile they keep the sword drawn, that, if the negotiations fail, they may be ready to submit the points at issue to a more violent arbitrement.

The sympathies of the Liberals are evidently with the Italian cause, but they do not go the length of desiring that England should unite in the armed coercion of Austria. Hence the proclamation of Queen Victoria of the 13th of May, laying down the principle of neutrality, and commanding its rigid observance, has obtained the suffrages of all parties. That document, dignified in tone, rational in its views, and considerate towards the interests of this great country, may be thus condensed:—

ENGLISH NEUTRALITY.

“We are happily at peace with all Sovereigns, Powers and States. Notwithstanding our utmost exertions to preserve peace between all the Sovereign Powers and States now at war, hostilities have unhappily commenced between the Emperor of Austria on the one part, and the King of Sardinia and the Emperor of the French on the other part.

“A state of war now exists between these states and between their respective subjects and others inhabiting their countries, territories, or dominions.

“We are on terms of friendship and amicable intercourse with each of these Sovereigns, and with their several subjects and others inhabiting their dominions. Great numbers of our loyal subjects reside and carry on commerce, and possess property and establishments, and enjoy various rights and privileges, within the dominions of each of the aforesaid Sovereigns, protected by the faith of treaties between us and each of those Sovereigns; and we, being desirous of preserving to our subjects the blessings of peace, are firmly determined to abstain altogether from taking any part in the war now unhappily existing, and to remain at peace, and to maintain a strict and impartial neutrality in the said hostilities and war.

“We, therefore, strictly charge and command all our subjects to govern themselves accordingly, and to observe a strict neutrality in and during the aforesaid hostilities and war, and to abstain from violating or contravening either the laws and statutes of the realm

in this behalf, or the law of nations in relation thereto, as they will answer to the contrary at their peril.

“And whereas in a certain statute passed in the 59th year of King George III., it is among other things enacted as follows :—

“That if any person within any part of the United Kingdom, or in any part of his Majesty's dominions beyond the seas, shall, without the leave and license of his Majesty, equip, furnish, fit out, or arm, or attempt or endeavour to equip, or procure to be equipped, furnished, &c., or shall knowingly aid, assist, or be concerned in the equipping any ship or vessel, with intent or in order that such ship or vessel shall be employed in the service of any foreign Prince, State, or Potentate, or of any foreign colony, province, or part of any province or people, or of any person or persons exercising or assuming to exercise any powers of government in or over any foreign State, colony, province, or part of any province or people, as a transport or storeship, or with intent to cruise or commit hostilities against any Prince, State, &c., with whom his Majesty shall not then be at war, or shall within the United Kingdom, or any of his Majesty's dominions, or in any settlement, colony, territory, island, or place, belonging or subject to his Majesty, issue or deliver any commission for any ship or vessel, to the intent that such ship or vessel shall be employed as aforesaid, every such person so offending shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall, upon conviction thereof, be punished by fine and imprisonment, or either of them, at the discretion of the Court in which such offender shall be convicted; and every such ship or vessel, with the tackle, &c., together with all the materials, arms, ammunition, and stores, shall be forfeited; and it shall be lawful for any officer of his Majesty's Customs or Excise, or any officer of his Majesty's Navy, to make seizures under the laws of Customs and Excise, or under the laws of trade and navigation; and every such ship and vessel, with the tackle, apparel, &c., may be prosecuted and condemned in the like manner, and in such courts as ships may be prosecuted and condemned for any breach of the laws made for the protection of the revenues of Customs and Excise, or of the laws of trade and navigation.’

“And, ‘if any person in any part of the United Kingdom, or in any part of his Majesty's dominions beyond the seas, shall, by adding to the number of the guns of such vessel, or by changing those on board for other guns, or by the addition of any equipment for war, increase or augment, or procure to be increased, the warlike force of any ship or vessel of war, or cruiser, or other armed vessel, which, at the time of her arrival in any part of the United Kingdom, or any of his Majesty's dominions, was a ship of war, cruiser, or armed vessel, in the service of any foreign Prince, every

such person so offending shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall be punished by fine and imprisonment, at the discretion of the Court before which such offender shall be convicted.'

"Now, in order that none of our subjects may render themselves liable to the penalties imposed by the said statute, we do hereby strictly command that no person or persons whatsoever do commit any act, matter, or thing whatsoever contrary to the provisions of the statute, upon pain of the several penalties by the said statute imposed and of our high displeasure.

"And we do hereby give notice, that all our subjects and persons entitled to our protection who may misconduct themselves in the premises will do so at their peril, and of their own wrong; and that they will in no wise obtain any protection from us against such capture or such penalties as aforesaid, but will, on the contrary, incur our high displeasure by such misconduct."

A wise government does not presume, that because its own purposes are pacific, and the nation whose affairs it conducts is equally disposed to avoid war, its neutrality can therefore be rigidly preserved. A hundred complications may arise out of the quarrel of two great powers, which must inevitably carry others into the political vortex. Who could have foreseen when England sent a handful of men into Flanders in 1794, to oppose the Republican armies of France, that a few years afterwards her sailors and her soldiers would be fighting great battles on the coast of Spain and Portugal, in Egypt, Calabria, the West Indies, Java, the Cape of Good Hope, Mauritius, the Peninsula of Europe, and subsequently in Belgium? The ramifications of commerce and the intrigues of diplomacy are rife with the seeds of strife, and no one can calculate the moment of their fruition. They are the dragons' teeth sown by the Cadmus of trade and ambition. Accordingly, the Secretary of State for War has prudently adopted Shakspeare's doctrine that—

"Though war nor no known quarrel are in question,
Defences, musters, preparations,
Should be maintained, assembled and collected
As were a war in expectation."

And, besides doing all that the case immediately calls for in fortifying our possessions in the Mediterranean, the British coast, and the Channel Islands, he has authorized the formation of Vo-

lunteer Rifle Corps throughout the provinces of Great Britain. There have been too many indications, during the last fifteen years, that an invasion of England has become a favourite *idée* of Frenchmen. The great Duke of Wellington, whose prescience was a remarkable feature of his rare and illustrious character, enjoined precautions against so terrible a catastrophe. Captain Maurice showed the feeble condition of Portsmouth, our chief arsenal and dockyard; the Prince de Joinville exposed the naval view of the question, and exhibited the facility with which our coasts might be insulted. The colonels of the French army actually addressed the emperor, a year ago, intreating to be led against us in our own land; and the Emperor himself has increased his fleet to nearly an equality with our own, and rendered his harbours opposite the British shores impregnable. All these are symptoms of an ingrained hostility, which it were extreme folly to disregard. We trust naturally to our noble men-of-war for our protection against an invader; but this confidence may, in the hour of danger, prove to be misplaced,—not from any inferiority in the quality and patriotism of our Navy,—not from any want of care on the part of the Admiralty,—but from a temporary inferiority in quantity—a mistake in a manœuvre—the incompetency of a commander, or the artifice of an enemy in drawing our principal ships out of the Channel at the moment they are needed. At such a crisis, the existence of an immense body of trained volunteers, armed with the Enfield rifle, may prove of inestimable utility. Well commanded and judiciously guided, and stimulated by the presence of a few thousands of the line and an energetic artillery, they may therefore become the saviours of their country.

The following Circular from the War Office, addressed to the Lords Lieutenants of counties, explains the system under which our volunteers are to be organized:—

“ War Office, Pall Mall, May 12, 1859.

“ Her Majesty’s Government having had under consideration the propriety of permitting the formation of Volunteer Rifle Corps, under the provisions of the Act of 44 George III., cap. 54, as well as of Artillery Corps and Companies in maritime towns in which there may be forts and batteries, I have the honour to inform you that I shall be prepared to receive through you, and consider any

proposal with that object, which may emanate from the county under your charge.

“The principal and most important provisions of the Act are :— That the corps be formed under officers bearing the commission of the Lieutenant of the county ; that its members must take the oath of allegiance before a Deputy Lieutenant or Justice of the Peace, or a commissioned officer of the corps ; that it be liable to be called out in case of actual invasion, or appearance of an enemy in force on the coast, or in case of rebellion arising out of either of those emergencies ; that while thus under arms its members are subject to military law, and entitled to be billeted and to receive pay in like manner as the regular army ; that all commissioned officers disabled in actual service are entitled to half-pay, and non-commissioned officers and privates to the benefit of Chelsea Hospital, and widows of commissioned officers killed in service to such pensions for life as are given to widows of officers of her Majesty’s regular forces ; that members cannot quit the corps when on actual service, but may do so at any other time by giving fourteen days’ notice ; that members who have attended eight days in each four months, or a total of twenty-four days’ drill and exercise in the year, are entitled to be returned as effectives ; that members so returned are exempt from militia ballot, or from being called upon to serve in any other levy ; that all property of the corps is legally vested in the commanding officer, and subscriptions and fines under the rules and regulations are recoverable by him before a magistrate. The conditions on which her Majesty’s Government will recommend to her Majesty the acceptance of any proposal are :—That the formation of the corps be recommended by the Lord Lieutenant of the county ; that the corps be subject to the provisions of the Act already quoted ; that its members undertake to provide their own arms and equipments, and to defray all expenses attending the corps, except in the event of its being assembled for actual service ; that the rules and regulations which may be thought necessary be submitted to me, in accordance with the 56th section of the Act. The uniform and equipments of the corps may be settled by the members, subject to your approval ; but the arms, though provided at the expense of the members, must be furnished under the superintendence and according to the regulations of this department, in order to secure a perfect uniformity of guage. The establishment of officers and non-commissioned officers will be fixed by me, and recorded in the books of this office ; and, in order that I may be enabled to determine the proportion, you will be pleased to specify the precise number of private men which you will recommend, and into how many companies you propose to divide them.

“I have only to add, that I shall look to you, as her Majesty’s

Lieutenant, for the nomination of proper persons to be appointed officers, subject to the Queen's approval.

"I have the honour to be, &c., your most obedient servant,

" J. PEEL."

"Her Majesty's Lieutenant for the County of ———."

Numerous meetings have been held in the towns and counties, where resolutions were passed that Volunteers should be enrolled.

The reader has now before him a sketch of the configuration of the present seat of war, and a brief history of the events connected with past and present European misunderstandings, arising out of Italy's cry for independence. It is the natural wish of a country like Great Britain, rejoicing in the inestimable blessings of a sound constitution, that Italy should be relieved from the oppression which is the subject of so much and such continual disquietude. No one desires to deprive Austria of the Lombardo-Venetian territories, which she possesses in virtue of the treaty of 1815. It is of great importance that she should hold them, because—as the ablest statesmen of Europe maintained at the Vienna Congress of that memorable year—Austria was the only power that could oppose a formidable barrier to France in Italy. The magnitude of the influence of France, the results of Napoleon's military conquests in every quarter, had been fraught with danger to the civilized world, and against a return to that peril the rest of Europe, when France was at its feet, took pains to interpose an obstacle. Austria did not need the provinces of Lombardo-Venetia; but she occupied them as part of her obligation to carry out the grand scheme of restoring the equilibrium of power in the civilized world. It did not follow, however, that, because she reluctantly accepted the trust, she should fulfil its duties negligently or oppressively. It was alike her duty and her policy to have rendered her rule a source of happiness to the people, and an essential ingredient in the consolidation of her own strength. An opposite policy unhappily prevailed. Tyrannical and meddling, Austria has rendered the people of Northern Italy

wretched and discontented, and she has mixed herself up with the affairs of the Italian Peninsula (as the treaties with the several Duchies show) in a manner to demonstrate her desire to extend her fearful domination. But we cannot interfere. Respecters of treaties, and conservators of public rights, and having once, to the enormous cost of the nation, committed the mistake of drawing the sword to protect monarchies against Republican principles, England will not again be readily induced to go to war for very opposite motives. Neither can she behold, with honest pleasure, the championship of France in the interesting cause of Italian liberty. Conceding to France the purest and most chivalric intentions at the outset of her enterprise, we cannot point to the possible result with any feelings of satisfaction. At this day the Parisians sing the *Piémontaise*, as in times gone by they chaunted other hymns of liberty:—

- “ Loin de nous de prendre l'épée
 Pour avilir les nations,
 Peser sur leur terre usurpée
 Et souffleter leurs vieux blasons !
 Nous voulons, guerriers magnanimes,
 Délivrer de nobles victimes
 De l'échafaud et des prisons.
- “ Oui, nos bras s'arment pour défaire
 L'œuvre injuste des anciens rois,
 Pour relever de la poussière
 Le front d'un grand peuple aux abois,
 Et, sans intérêt, sans colère,
 L'aider à ressaisir sur terre
 Son rang véritable et ses droits.
- “ Italie ! ô sœur malheureuse !
 Ton cri n'est pas en vain jeté.
 La France n'est point oublieuse
 De sa nourrice de beauté.
 Pour tous les trésors de science
 Que tu versas sur notre enfance,
 Nous te rendrons la liberté.*”

But how, when she has finished her self-imposed mission, does she teach the poets of other nations to sing?—

* See *La Patrie* for this and similar *Chansons des Boulevards*.

“ France got drunk with blood to vomit crime,
And fatal has her Saturnalia been
In Freedom’s cause in every age and clime.*”

BYRON—*Childe Harold*.

The Third Napoleon, like the First, may dream—if indeed he does dream—of Italian liberty, and, like his uncle, he may also wake to new schemes of dominion. It is this which excites the anxiety of Great Britain. We have little love for Austrian tyranny: we have no confidence in French disinterestedness. Between the two Italy may be torn to pieces, and we can only look on and mourn. May our conjectures prove utterly ill-founded, and the “ Italian Question ” find a solution in the concessions of Austria and the moderation of France and Sardinia!

THE ARMIES OF AUSTRIA, SARDINIA, AND FRANCE.

It does not require a very profound acquaintance with history, to be aware that the successes of military nations depend less upon the numerical extent of their forces than upon their discipline, their *materiel*, the education of their officers, and the experience of their generals. Masses have, ere now, been overthrown by compact bands, from the days of Leonidas to those of Havelock. Nevertheless, when all other things are equal, numbers must tell in a prolonged conflict; and, in this view, it may be of interest to the reader to receive a short account of the relative powers of the armies now about to come into collision on the banks of the Po. We may premise by remarking that none of the generals on either side have yet had an opportunity of displaying their capacity in spacious fields of war, where success, in a great measure, depends

* When Lefevre, the Duc de Dantzig, announced to the people of Mayence that he had come to give them liberty, he said, in Alsatian-German, “ Ich komm hier euch Freiheit zu bringen, aber wenn ihr euch ruhr so soll euch der Teufel hohlen ! ” — “ I come here to give you liberty, but if you stir I’ll send you all to the Devil ! ” — *Godsmith’s Secret History*.

upon combination and manœuvre. The French marshals have acquired their military experience in Africa and the Crimea: their imperial generalissimo, at Boulogne and Strasbourg. The Austrians fought in Hungary and Northern Italy in 1848, and the Sardinians in the latter locality and the Crimea at the same period.

The AUSTRIAN ARMY available for active field-service amounts to about 400,000 men of all arms. The discipline is exact, the education careful. The cavalry bears a larger proportion to the infantry than is common in most European armies, excepting in Russia, where swarms of Cossacks swell the cavalry to considerably above a quarter of a million. There are about 65,000 mounted troops in Austria, of whom one-third are heavy dragoons, cuirassiers, &c. The artillery comprises nearly 1,400 guns, including those upon the ramparts of the numerous fortresses scattered over the empire; the men and officers are 70,000 in number. No fewer than 11,000 officers and men compose the engineer-force, which does not include the pontoon and pioneer corps, some 5,000 strong. The infantry consists of 62 regiments of the line, guards, &c., each regiment containing six battalions, four of which are service-battalions, each 1,324 strong. To these add 20,000 gend'armes, and the reserve of discharged soldiers, who generally amount to upwards of 100,000. The necessity which Austria is under of keeping all her fortresses well-manned, and the towns well-garrisoned, essentially reduces the number of troops disposable for field-service, which may be estimated, as above stated, at above 400,000 men.

The education which the Austrians give to their officers is one of the most striking features of their system, and ought to leave them without a rival, if scientific attainment were the *summum bonum* of military efficiency. According to the Report of some scientific British officers, sent over a few years since to investigate the military educational establishments of the empire, it appears that upwards of 5,700 pupils receive an education, *more than half the number free, to fit them to become non-commissioned officers*. This education is given between the ages of seven and eighteen; it is generally conducted in three successive schools, and the most talented and deserving pupils in the highest schools are drafted into the Academies, whence

they may obtain commissions as officers. It may be calculated that at least fifty or sixty young men of humble birth obtain commissions yearly in this manner, in various parts of the Austrian service. The education given is of a very solid character, chiefly in military subjects, but well calculated to cultivate intelligence and judgment. It is difficult to ascertain the exact sum thus spent, but it cannot be less than 100,000*l.* yearly. The assistance is given entirely on the ground of the father's service in a military or official capacity, and not in any case as the reward of success in an open competitive examination.

Military education is, both in the case of non-commissioned officers and of officers, begun at a very early age. A youth is pledged by his father or near relations to the service of the Emperor. Mathematics occupy a prominent place in all the stages of this education. Of the teaching of classical languages there is little or none; the empire supplies so many living languages of its own, that there is no time for learning a dead one.

In the schools for officers, previous to entering the army, the studies appear to be pursued with great care. Thus, in the Artillery and Engineer Academies the subjects are high, the amount of time devoted very great, and the *credits* expressive of the pupil's success in his examination very satisfactory. An unusually large number of pupils obtain high marks. The same character applies to Wiener Neustadt, the School for the Infantry and Cavalry, and the main feeder to the Staff School. The British Commissioners were struck *by the apparent goodness of the discipline, the manly and gentlemanly demeanour of the pupils, and the kindness with which they seemed to be treated.* It ought to be added, that the pupils of Wiener Neustadt only furnish about one-twentieth of the officers of the whole army. The rest enter with scarcely any examination.

The studies of the Staff School are few in number, but well chosen; and what is done seems to be done thoroughly. There is open competition for entrance, and considerable advantages of pay are given to the successful candidates whilst studying at this school; and, on leaving, the students are placed in the order of merit, and each enters the Staff accordingly. This *merit* is not estimated solely by the standard of

attainment, but, that once determined, the student's reward is invariably in accordance with it. But, in addition to the above, very direct encouragement is offered for success in the Staff School by immediate promotion being given to the second lieutenant, and the prospective promotion of lieutenants to the rank of captain, after three years' more service, is also secured.

The education of officers for the Artillery and Engineers before entering the service is given separately in Austria.

The FRENCH ARMY, when the war establishment is complete, comprehends 580,000 men. Of these, nearly 400,000 are infantry. From the difficulty experienced in mounting the light cavalry in France, it is believed that not more than 30,000 troops, exclusive of the *Chasseurs d'Afrique*, can be brought into the field. The artillery is inferior to that of the Austrian in the number of guns, but far superior to its antagonist in field-artillery. France has fewer forts to protect, and the Emperor has bestowed a great deal of attention upon the improvement of field-guns. Rifled cannon (4-pounders) have been carried into Piedmont. France has three regiments of Engineers, of 2,500 men each, and a Pontoon train. The Chasseurs, or Riflemen of the French army, are a valuable class of Infantry, trained to the use of the *minié* and the *carabine-à-tige*. But in this respect the Austrians are scarcely their inferiors: the *Jagers* and Borderers are very expert marksmen.

The scholastic establishments of France, and their general regulations for admission and advancement, are a credit to the nation.

The armies, as is well known, are composed of soldiers levied by yearly conscription for a service of seven years. Substitutes are allowed, but, in accordance with a recent alteration, they are selected by the State. Private arrangements are no longer permitted; a fixed sum is paid over to the authorities, and the choice of the substitutes, as in Austria, made by them.

The troops are officered partly from the military schools and partly by promotion from the ranks. The proportions are established by law. One-third of the commissions are reserved for the military schools, and one-third left for pro-

motion from the ranks. The disposal of the remaining third part is left to the Emperor. In actual practice, it is said that two-thirds of the officers in the Artillery and Engineers are taken from the pupils of the Polytechnic, and one-third only from the ranks; in the Line, on the other hand, about two-thirds are promoted from the ranks, and one-third only have gone through St. Cyr. But it must also be added, that only a very small proportion of those promoted from the ranks rise above the rank of captain in any of the services.

The promotion is partly by seniority (*ancienneté*) and partly by selection (*choix*).

The following regulations exist, as to the length of service in each rank before promotion can be given, during a period of peace:—

A 2nd Lieut. cannot be promoted to Lieut. under 2 years' service.			
A Lieutenant	„	Captain	„ 2 „
A Captain	„	Major	„ 4 „
A Major	„	Lieut.-Col.	3 „
A Lieut.-Col.	„	Colonel	„ 2 „

Thus the youngest Lieut.-Colonel must have been in the army thirteen years.

But in time of war these regulations are not in force.

Up to the rank of Captain, two-thirds of the promotion takes place according to seniority, and the other one-third by selection.

From the rank of Captain to that of Major (*chef de bataillon ou d'escadron*) half of the promotion is by seniority, and the other half by selection, and from Major upwards it is entirely by selection.*

The steps which lead to the selection are as follows:—The General Officers appointed by the Minister-at-War to make the annual inspections of the several divisions of the army of France, who are called Inspectors-General, as soon as they have completed their tours of inspection, return to Paris, and assemble together for the purpose of comparing their notes respecting the officers they have each seen, and thus prepare a

* This plan was pressed upon the Duke of Cambridge for adoption in the British army, but, with rare disinterestedness, His Royal Highness refused to adopt it. "Give me," he said, "the power of superseding incompetency, but do not expose me to the invidiousness of selecting when the claims are equal."

list arranged in the order in which they recommend that the selection for promotion should be made.

The principal **MILITARY SCHOOLS** at present existing in France are the following:—

1. The Polytechnic School at Paris (*Ecole Impériale Polytechnique*) preparatory to—
2. The Artillery and Engineers School of Application at Metz (*Ecole Impériale d'Application de l'Artillerie et du Génie*).
3. The Military School at St. Cyr (*Ecole Impériale Spéciale Militaire*), for the infantry and cavalry, into which the officers' department of the Cavalry School at Saumur has lately been absorbed.
4. The Staff School at Paris (*Ecole Impériale d'Application d'Etat Major*).
5. The Military Orphan School (*Prytanée Impériale Militaire*) at La Flèche.
6. The Medical School (*Ecole Impériale de Médecine et de Pharmacie Militaires*), recently established in connexion with the Hospital of Val-de-Grâce.
7. The School of Musketry (*Ecole Normale de Tir*) at Vincennes, founded in 1842.
8. The Gymnastic School (*Ecole Normale de Gymnastique*) near Vincennes.
9. The Music School (*Gymnase Musical*).
10. The Regimental Schools (*Ecoles Régimentaires*).

The Military Schools are under the charge of the Minister-of-War, with whom the authorities of the schools are in direct communication.

The **SARDINIAN ARMY** is more remarkable for its *pluck* and discipline than for its numbers or education. About 70,000 men constitute the sum-total of the army, which may be increased in war time, by extraordinary levies and volunteers, to 120,000. The bulk of the army are foot soldiers, of whom the most serviceable are the Bersaglieri or riflemen. But there are nine regiments of cavalry, four of whom are lancers, and eighteen full batteries of artillery, besides twelve batteries in position.

The professional education of the Sardinians is of recent growth. The wars in which Sardinia has been recently engaged, the consequent demand for officers, and the new regulations established in many of the schools since 1850, have

combined to prevent them from being in their regular or most effective condition during the last few years. Thus the School of Ivrea, which may, perhaps, be called the peculiar contribution of Sardinia to the cause of military education, was closed at the beginning of 1857; and the rules requiring all lieutenants to pass through it previous to obtaining a captaincy were relaxed during the war: the Staff School also could not be termed finally organised.

The character of the education may be described generally, as partly resembling that of Austria, partly that of France. It commences very early. Every officer who enters the Army as such must have passed through the Great Military School, the *Accademia Militare*. The minimum age of entrance is fourteen. The admission is by nomination and not by competition; and the demand has always been under rather than above the requirements of the Army. "Bourses" or Exhibitions to assist pupils in their education have been established on the Prussian and Austrian, rather than on the French principle. They are granted by the king on the recommendation of the minister, in consideration of the claims of deceased officers, or other public servants, and without reference to the merits of the pupils, preference being given to the candidates whose circumstances most require assistance. From twenty-five to thirty of these *Bourses* (or rather *Demibourses*, for no pupils receive entire support such as is given in France,) are given annually. The entire sum expended upon them is 70,000 francs, about 9,800*l.* per annum.

Passing from this outline of the principles of Sardinian military education, as exhibited in the *Accademia Militare*, which may be termed the General Seminary of the Sardinian Army, we shall briefly allude to the *three* remaining institutions, in which officers receive instruction and training at later periods of their career.

Admission into the Artillery and Engineer School may be considered the reward of the most distinguished pupils of the *Accademia Militare*, who, after spending their last year in that institution in the study of the higher mathematics, chemistry, and architectural drawing, are transferred for the completion of their education to the School of the Artillery and Engineers.

The Staff School, the formation of which dates from 1850,

is chiefly frequented by officers of the infantry and cavalry, who must be below the age of twenty-eight years upon their entrance. It is carried on upon the competitive system, the officers being ranged according to merit in their final examination, the ablest entering the Staff Corps in that order.

Two institutions peculiar to the Sardinian service are the *Schools for Officers*, one or other of which it is necessary that every officer, under ordinary circumstances, should attend for a year before being promoted to the rank of captain. One of these is for the Infantry, at Ivrea; the other for the Cavalry, at Pinerol. In saying that *every* officer must attend these schools, we except that proportion of *one-third* who are promoted annually from the ranks, and whose attendance apparently has not hitherto been required. But a class for non-commissioned officers is now being formed at Ivrea, which, for the sake of economy, is to be common to those of the infantry and cavalry.

Military education in Sardinia is entirely in the hands of the Minister of War. The annual cost of its support does not exceed 18,000*l*. The rules of promotion have recently undergone two successive alterations, one in 1855, and another in 1856. At the present time a certain proportion of appointments to grades below that of major is given according to seniority, the remainder by selection. Above that rank all promotions are by selection. Reports of the conduct of subaltern officers are monthly sent in to a board of six field-officers, who are charged with the duty of making recommendations for promotion from among the more distinguished.

THE END.

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